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ABSTRACT

This report deals with the research and development of a curriculum which seeks to advance democratic intergroup relations through educational processes in elementary schools. Volume 1 describes the background research and development, with particular emphasis on propositions, critiques, and recommendations with respect to intergroup relations education in the United States. It also contains a report on the Lincoln Filene Center's inservice program for teachers, evaluation instruments, and procedures for disseminating information and findings regarding the curriculum, as well as instructional materials and teaching strategies. Intergroup relations are defined as interactions among people which reflect a respect for human dignity and worth and which seek to avoid prejudicial thinking and overt discriminatory behavior. A large number of preconceptions are examined, and supportive research and evidence are cited for the positions taken by the Center in developing the curriculum. Volume 2 of this report is related document SP 005 479. (MBM)

# *THE INTERGROUP RELATIONS CURRICULUM*

ED 058167

## *A PROGRAM FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL EDUCATION*

VOLUME I

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## Volume I

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Former members of the Center's staff played key roles in the development of the Curriculum. They include Miss Jane B. Benson, Mrs. Erik C. Esselstyn, Mrs. Douglas Dodds (formerly Miss Astrid Anderson), Miss Vivienne Frachtenberg, and Mrs. Stephen Morse. All were deeply involved in the Arlington (Massachusetts) and Providence (Rhode Island) inservice programs for teachers; and Mrs. Esselstyn, in particular, wrote a number of the learning activities set forth in Volume II of this study.

The work of former associates of the Center is reflected here. Dr. Joseph C. Grannis of Teachers College, Columbia University, chaired the primary level working party during academic 1966-1967 and was responsible for many of the concepts in the learning activities for the early grades presented in Volume II of the study. His associates in this group were Miss Helen Clark, Winchester (Massachusetts) school system; Miss Else Jaffe, Harvard Graduate School of Education; Mrs. Louise C. Smith, Harvard Graduate School of

Education; Miss Melissa Tillman, New School for Children, Boston; and Mrs. Doreen Wilkinson, Lesley-Ellis School, Lesley College, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

The work of the intermediate-grade level working party of academic 1966-1967 is also incorporated in this report. That group, headed by Dr. Gibson, was comprised of Mrs. Hilbert; Mrs. William Davidson and Mr. Frank Lyman of the Lexington (Massachusetts) school system; Mrs. Paul Reinhart, member of the faculty and supervisor for social studies interns, Lesley College, Cambridge; Miss Mary Lou Denning, Lowell (Massachusetts) school system; and Mrs. Bryant Rollins, Hilltop Day Care Center, Roxbury, Massachusetts, and presently at the Harvard Graduate School of Education, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

The Center is also most grateful to the many teachers and administrators of the Title I Project, Lowell, Massachusetts, for their contributions to the teaching of the Curriculum during the summer of 1967, and to the teachers who used the Curriculum in the Castle Square Project, Boston, in the summer of 1968. Dr. Lonnie Carton of the Department of Education, Tufts University, did an excellent job in coordinating this project. Dr. Helen J. Kenney and her associates, especially Mrs. Barbara Harris, conducted early evaluation studies on the Curriculum.

We acknowledge with gratitude the help of the teachers from the Arlington, Cambridge, Boston, Lexington, Medford, Newton, and Winchester (Massachusetts) school systems and the eighty Rhode Island teachers who, through in-service programs, provided vital feedback for advancing the Curriculum in so many respects.

Finally, the Center expresses its deep appreciation to those administration and faculty members of Tufts University who have provided assistance in many ways, and to the officers and members of the Board of Trustees of the Civic Education Foundation, and especially to the late Samuel Barron, Jr., and Albert W. Vanderhoof, for their support and guidance of the Lincoln Filene Center.

John S. Gibson, Director
Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship
and Public Affairs
Tufts University
January, 1969

# Preface

This is a report from the Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts University, to the United States Office of Education on the research and development of an intergroup relations curriculum for use in our nation's elementary schools. The research and development reported in this study were performed pursuant to a grant with the Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (No. OEG-1-8-080197-001-057). Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

Volume I of this study sets forth the background of the Lincoln Filene Center's research and development on the Intergroup Relations Curriculum and, in particular, propositions, critiques, and recommendations with respect to intergroup relations education in the United States. This is Section I of the report to the United States Office of Education. Volume I also contains a report on the Center's inservice programs for teachers, evaluation instruments, and procedures for disseminating information and findings regarding the Curriculum. This is Section III of the report to the United States Office of Education. We have therefore combined Sections I and III of the official report in Volume I of the total study.

Volume II of this study presents the Intergroup Relations Curriculum. This volume includes an introduction to the Curriculum, the conceptual framework or the "governing process," the methodological tools, recommendations for teaching the Curriculum, learning activities and units, and recommended instructional resources for teachers and students. Volume II therefore contains Section II of the report to the Office of Education. This preface is included in both volumes, as are the contents for the total study. Various sections and parts of the study are numbered sequentially in the upper right-hand corner of each page, while the total study is sequentially paginated at the bottom center of each page.

The Lincoln Filene Center has organized this study in a utilitarian manner so that it can have wide use in elementary schools. Segments of the study, especially the learning activities and units in Volume II (Part E of Section II), are available at the Center. The Center is conducting inservice programs for the Intergroup Relations Curriculum and would be happy to respond to requests for information about these programs or any other aspect of the Curriculum.

This study certainly does not represent the culmination of the Center's research, development, teaching programs, inservice programs, or evaluation with respect to the Intergroup Relations Curriculum. Our copyright of the study reflects a desire to continue work in the area of intergroup relations education under Center auspices. Nevertheless, the study represents a number of years of intensive research, development, and teaching of the Curriculum in the schools. Thus we are pleased to share what we feel is a significant and relevant instructional program with anyone concerned about advancing democratic intergroup relations through the process of education.

John S. Gibson
Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship
and Public Affairs
Tufts University
January, 1969

# I

## The Intergroup Relations Curriculum Project: An Overview

Section I of this study presents an introduction to the Intergroup Relations Curriculum project, some propositions, critiques, and recommendations with respect to intergroup relations in the United States, and the development, results, and conclusions of the Curriculum, which seeks to advance democratic intergroup relations through educational processes in our nation's elementary schools. The broad dimensions of the project have been outlined in the Preface to this study, and Part A of this section contains the background of the project as well as some overarching comments with respect to this study.

## I - A

## Introduction to the Intergroup Relations Curriculum Project

This study is both a report to the United States Office of Education on research and development under the aegis of a curriculum-improvement project, and also an extensive statement to educators and laymen concerned about improving democratic human relations in the United States through education. The report contains instructional materials, teaching strategies, inservice programming for teachers, evaluation, and instructional resources on intergroup education for elementary schools.

The central message of this broad study is quite clear. A major thrust, if not the major thrust, for improving democratic intergroup relations in the United States must be through the processes of education in the elementary schools of our nation. In general, this challenge and responsibility are not currently being met by personnel and processes in our elementary schools. Research and development, however, now present some specific and tested approaches for advancing democratic intergroup relations among young people through educational processes in our elementary schools.

It is essential that we clarify the term intergroup relations. We are really talking about democratic human relations, or interactions among people which reflect a respect for human dignity and worth and which seek to avoid prejudicial thinking and overt discriminatory behavior. The term intergroup relations is somewhat misleading, because it suggests that members of racial, religious, ethnic, or national-origin groups act in unison and that it is groups, per se, which compete or conflict with one another in the pursuit of the good life in the United States. The idea of "group" relations mistakenly conveys the impression that all members of any one group act in the same manner. One of the key objectives of education in "intergroup relations" is to help young people to realize the harm in stereotyping people who are associated with any group and to have them value a person on the basis of that person's individual qualities as well as the positive attributes of groups to which he belongs or with which he is identified.

Nevertheless, intergroup relations is a widely used concept, and if we understand that our focus is on advancing democratic human relations, then we are on safe ground in referring to our project as the "Intergroup Relations Curriculum" (or simply "Curriculum"). The central objective of the project and the Curriculum is to advance young people toward behavioral objectives which will bring the realities of human relations in our nation much closer to the great ideals of the democratic doctrine.

The background of the Lincoln Filene Center's curriculum improvement project has been stated before and need not occupy much space in this study. Actually, this is a report on the last phase of a project which has received Federal support for a number of years. Although the Lincoln Filene Center has been deeply concerned about advancing the cause of democratic human relations through the process of education since its inception in 1945, the immediate origins of the present project stem from the Center's September, 1963, conference on "Negro Self-Concept." [1] At that time, many of the conferees stressed the view that instructional materials in the schools were grossly inadequate in coping realistically and even honestly with racial and cultural diversity in American life. They pointed out that one of the great needs of education in the United States was to develop tools for learning and teaching strategies, especially at the elementary school level, designed to help grade school students to have a better balanced picture of the racial and cultural differences which have influenced the growth of American life and which play such a vital and vibrant role in our contemporary society.

The Center responded to this need and, following extensive negotiations with the United States Office of Education, contracted with the Office to undertake an extended project concerned with the development of instructional materials on race and culture in American life for elementary school students. Dr. John S. Gibson, Director of the Lincoln Filene Center, and Dr. William C. Kvaraceus, Director of Youth Studies at the Center, served as co-directors of the first phase of the project (March 1, 1965, to April 30, 1966). Miss Astrid C. Anderson was appointed as the project's principal research assistant.

The objectives of the first phase of the project were as follows:

1. Identify basic principles of human behavior in intergroup relations and reasons why individuals, groups, and cultures differ.
2. Update a review of the treatment of racial and cultural diversity and the role of Negroes in existing K-6 instructional materials (readers, social studies texts, language arts books, histories, etc.).
3. Determine, in consultation with historians and social scientists, the kinds of information and concepts about racial and cultural diversity and the Negro in American life which would be appropriate in elementary education.
4. Explore the development of sequences and units of instruction which utilize new materials and instructional innovations and deal with the subject of racial and cultural diversity.

The staff of the Lincoln Filene Center which was assigned to the project convened a small working conference of scholars and specialists in this field in March, 1965, to determine basic guidelines for pursuing these objectives. [2] Staff preparatory work continued during the spring of 1965, leading to a conference of historians and social scientists at the Center on June 18 and 19, 1965, which provided a basic sense of direction and specific recommendations for advancing the objectives of the project. [3]

During the summer and fall of 1965, the Center staff began to organize two working parties to plan and develop pilot materials for student use. One group was organized for the "lower grades" (K-3), while the other was concerned with the "upper grades" (4-6). Some of the specialists mentioned above joined elementary school teachers in these groups to prepare provisional materials which were used in a number of schools during the academic year 1965-66. A description of these materials and student and teacher responses to them were included in the Center's report to the Office on the first phase of the project. [4]

In the meantime, Miss Anderson undertook a broad survey of existing instructional materials for K-6 students (readers, social studies texts, etc.) so that the staff could appraise the messages these materials convey (or do not convey) to students. This survey, contained in the Gibson-Kvaraceus report, found that existing materials were quite inadequate in giving an honest and balanced account of racial and cultural diversity in American life, past and present. Miss Anderson found that the textbooks were more guilty of omission than of commission in the treatment of diversity. During the past four years, a number of other surveys of instructional materials have only reconfirmed Miss Anderson's findings.

The Gibson-Kvaraceus report of April, 1966, completed the first phase of the project, and the Center submitted a new proposal in December, 1965, which sought additional funding to continue the project. Although the United States Office of Education approved the second proposal in the spring of 1966, funds were not available to carry on the project at the level recommended by the readers of the proposal and the Office. Following discussions with the Office, the Center agreed to continue the project, but at one-third the level of funding felt necessary to advance the objectives of the second phase.

As a result of a site visit to the Center by a United States Office team on May 2, 1966, and from conversations with officials at the Office, John S. Gibson, project director, agreed that the staff should give additional attention to evaluation of affective change of students engaged in the pilot use of materials produced by the project, effective teaching strategies used in the handling of project materials in the classroom, and finding means to help a number of school systems to use the materials on a provisional basis. It was agreed with the Office that the second phase of the project should run from September 15, 1966, through September 14, 1967, and that the Center should concentrate on preparing two units--one roughly at the second-grade level (the community) and the other at the fifth-grade level (United States history). The Center undertook the responsibility not only to develop units at these grade levels but also to provide affective evaluation data, to engage in actual classroom teaching, and to suggest teaching strategies which appear to be effective in maximizing the utility of the materials.

In its report to the United States Office of Education of October, 1967, the Center submitted two extensive units dealing with racial and cultural diversity within the context of the community and within the scope of United States history.[5] (See John S. Gibson, The Development of Appropriate Instructional Units and Related Materials on Racial and Cultural Diversity in America. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and

Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Research, Final Report, Contract No. OEC-1-7-062140-0256, October, 1967. This report was also published by the Lincoln Filene Center, John S. Gibson, Race and Culture in American Life: A Program for Elementary School Education (Medford, Massachusetts: The Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts University, December, 1967).

The Lincoln Filene Center has received thousands of requests for information about its research, development, and teacher-education programs based on the project's findings. More than two thousand copies of the project's report have been distributed by the Center. The project director has given many papers and addresses on the project, including a talk to more than 600 delegates to the National Education Association's Conference on the Treatment of Minorities in Textbooks (Washington, D. C., February 9, 1967). Dr. Gibson's paper, entitled "Learning Materials and Minorities: What Medium and What Message?", received very wide circulation. Other Center publications and programs associated with the project included the book, Poverty, Education, and Race Relations, edited by Messrs. Kvaraceus, Gibson, and Curtin (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1967) and "Education and Race Relations," a series of twenty-eight 45-minute television programs (on videotape and kinescope film). This series was funded under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and is available at the Departments of Education of the nine northeastern states. The Center also integrated many concepts and findings of the project into its 1965 and 1966 NDEA Institutes for Teachers of Disadvantaged Youth.

On August 30, 1967, the Center submitted a proposal to the United States Office of Education for continuation of the project. Funding problems precluded Federal support of the project during the remainder of 1967 and early 1968; however, the Office was able to continue its backing of the project starting on January 17, 1968, and terminating on September 30, 1968. Therefore, this report covers Center research, development, inservice programming, and other project details from January 17, 1968, to September 30, 1968.

The Office's commission to the Center for this period was to refine, modify, and expand the instructional materials and teaching strategies developed through August 30, 1967. Between August 30, 1967, and the resumption of Office support on January 17, 1968, the Center continued its research and development with its own resources, and many of the activities in this present report thus reflect this period of private funding.

Section II of the report contains the rationale of this instructional program, the Intergroup Relations Curriculum; the overarching framework of the Curriculum, or the "governing process"; the methodological tools; how to teach the Curriculum; and learning activities and units. An extensive bibliography of instructional resources is also included in this section. Section II, in other words, is the basic statement about the Curriculum as it stands at present and thus represents the contractual obligation by the Center to the Federal Government for "refinement, modification, and expansion of the instructional materials and teaching strategies" developed by the Center during the previous phases of the project.

The significant aspect of Section II is the fact that it contains instructional approaches and teaching strategies for grades one through six and not just for grades two and three, and grade five. Learning activities, used in many kinds of classrooms in grades one through six, are included, as well as two modified units and pictorial approaches to teaching and learning about democratic intergroup relations. Clearly these activities, units, and teaching strategies require considerable further testing in the classroom and revision. The Center staff would hardly claim that they represent any final or completed approach to effective teaching and learning about intergroup relations in the elementary school classroom. The entire content of Section II has been broadly used, however, and does reflect considerable experience, testing, and feedback. While refinement and improvement are always necessary, it is possible to say that Section II is a seasoned instructional program and one worthy of use in any elementary school classroom.

Section III of this report sets forth how the Center has brought the Curriculum to schools and how it has conducted its inservice programs for teachers using the Curriculum. An accounting of evaluation and dissemination procedures is also presented, as well as current activities and projected plans for presenting the Curriculum to an increasingly larger number of elementary schools in the United States and abroad.

## I - B

## Intergroup Relations in the United States: Propositions, Critiques, and Recommendations

In Part A of Section I, we stated that educational processes in the elementary schools of the United States may well be the principal means by which we can genuinely improve intergroup relations in this country. To put the matter another way, the future of the democratic civic culture in the United States must rest upon relations and interactions among American citizens based upon mutual respect and human dignity. If the abrasive and often violent nature of relations between and among people from different groups continues, then the very fabric of our civic culture eventually will be torn to shreds. Although many programs and endeavors in our society have sought to advance democratic human relations and to provide assistance to the disadvantaged, our greatest national problem, prejudice and discrimination, continues. It is imperative, therefore, that we do everything possible to solve this problem, and the processes of education may well be the chief means by which we can strive toward this end.

Let us clarify our basic terms. The civic culture in the United States is the fundamental democratic way of life and way of governing in a racially and culturally diverse society. The concept of civic culture is taken from Gabriel A. Almond and Sidney Verba's study, The Civic Culture (Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1965). A democratic civic culture is one characterized by processes and human relations infused with the ideals of the democratic doctrine. An expanded analysis of this theme within the context of teaching and learning of and by young people may be found in John S. Gibson's Citizenship (San Rafael, California: Dimensions Publishing Company, Dimensions in Early Learning Series, 1969).

We stress the critical importance of elementary school education and of educators. In particular, we are concerned with the latter's capacity and willingness to accept responsibilities for orienting our young people toward effective and democratic living and human relations in a racially and culturally diverse society and world. "Capacity" suggests ability, education, skills, and effectiveness, while "willingness" refers to the desire to be effective, to be sensitive to all kinds of human problems, to empathize with them, and to be dedicated to a search for their solutions.

It is the purpose of this part of Section I to set forth some basic propositions about intergroup relations in the United States; some critiques with respect to educational processes in the area of democratic intergroup relations; and some recommendations for improving these processes. All statements in each of these three segments are supported by research, empirical data, and experiences and evaluation emanating from the teaching of the Curriculum in many kinds of elementary schools. First, we offer a broad statement linking these three segments, and then specific statements with respect to the propositions, critiques, and recommendations. Finally, we present each statement in the three segments and set forth the research, data, experiences, and evaluation to support these statements.

The overview statement is as follows: A major thrust, if not the major thrust, for improving democratic intergroup relations in the United States must be through processes of education in the elementary schools of our nation. In general, this challenge and responsibility are not currently being met by personnel and processes in our elementary schools. Research and development now present, however, some specific and tested approaches for advancing democratic intergroup relations among young people through educational processes in our elementary schools.

1. A major thrust, if not the major thrust, for improving democratic intergroup relations in the United States must be through processes of education in the elementary schools of our nation. Following are propositions advancing this thesis (page numbers in parentheses refer to supportive research and findings):

a. There is a clear and pressing need to improve human relations among Americans so that the democratic civic culture of this nation may genuinely reflect and embody the ideals of the democratic doctrine. (pp. 14, 15)

b. Although many attempts have been made in this direction through legislation, judicial action, employment, housing, urban redevelopment, action by all kinds of organizations, and so on, education is perhaps the most important institution and procedure for advancing democratic human relations in the United States. To paraphrase the Preamble to the Charter of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, if bigotry stems from the minds of men, it is through the minds of men that democratic human relations can best be improved. (pp. 15, 16)

c. While we are abundantly aware of how much education in human relations takes place in the family, in the environment of the individual, in peer groups, churches and other religious institutions, through media, and in various kinds of organizations, nevertheless the school is the central educational institution for advancing democratic human relations. (pp. 16-18)

d. Although enormous energies have been expended on programs which seek to improve the capacity of the school to advance democratic human relations, including desegregation, integration, compensatory education, improved school buildings and facilities, new technologies, decentralization and community control patterns, and so on, it is submitted that the main focus should be on the actual processes of education. By this we mean that it is such factors as teachers, students, teaching-learning processes, instructional materials, curriculum organization and content, and administrative activity that will be the fundamental agents of change toward better democratic human relations through education in our schools. (pp. 18-20)

e. While considerable effort is being directed toward improving these processes at all age levels, the principal point of intervention and concentration should be at the age levels of five through twelve, where young people acquire their basic attitudes and values with respect to intergroup relations. (pp. 20-22)

2. The challenge and responsibility of improving democratic intergroup relations in the United States through processes of education in the elementary schools of our nation are not currently being met.

a. Most schools lack specific educational objectives for improving democratic human relations and assume that "citizenship education" as a rather vague goal will generally suffice. (pp. 23, 24)

b. Most elementary school teachers are inadequately prepared for teaching about democratic human relations and only rarely receive effective and relevant inservice education in this field. Furthermore, many teachers feel uneasy about teaching what often is considered to be sensitive subject matter in the classroom, and they generally lack the skills necessary for effective teaching about democratic human relations. (pp. 24-26)

c. Too often it is assumed that elementary school learners or students know little or nothing about racial and cultural diversity and that they should not be exposed to intergroup relations education in the classroom, because this might well make them more prejudiced than would be the case if they had no exposure to intergroup relations in the school. Other assumptions and views about learners are that some by nature are less intelligent than others and therefore that such young people, usually inner-city blacks, cannot learn as much or as well as others. As we shall see, these assumptions are quite invalid. (pp. 27, 28)

d. The teaching-learning process in intergroup relations is generally characterized by teachers lecturing or exhorting students to be "good citizens" and thus by little or no participation by students in the process; by avoiding emotions or sensitive confrontations among students and between students and teachers in the classroom; and often by the absence of significant links between the ideals of the democratic society and the real life situations of many students. (pp. 29-33)

e. It is generally assumed that instructional materials which have pictures of black students, stories about blacks in the suburbs, and considerable emphasis on key black figures of history, or which take the form of units on black history and so on, serve to make a substantial improvement in the teaching and learning about democratic human relations. This assumption is invalid. (pp. 33-41)

f. The usual structure and content of the elementary school curriculum do not lend themselves to advancing democratic human relations through education. (pp. 41, 42)

g. School administrators must also bear guilt for not improving education in intergroup relations if they assume that "integrated" instructional materials are making a significant contribution to the cause; if they do not lend support to teachers who in various ways seek to better the situation; if they let culturally biased IQ tests serve as the main basis for determining intelligence; if they do not permit flexibility in scheduling and curriculum reorganization; and if they do not seize opportunities for many kinds of integrated learning situations among students. (pp. 42-45)

3. Research and development now present some specific and tested approaches for advancing democratic intergroup relations among young people through educational processes in our elementary schools.

- a. The following are concrete and attainable behavioral objectives in intergroup relations for elementary (and all) students: (pp. 45-47)
    - i. To advance the child's positive self-concept.
    - ii. To help the child to reduce stereotypic and prejudicial thinking and overt discrimination with respect to all kinds of groupings of human beings.
    - iii. To assist the child in realizing that there are many differences among people within groupings or categories of people based on sex, age, race, ethnic classification, national origin, profession or employment, region (e.g., "Southerner," "New Englander"), and level of education.
    - iv. To give the child a very realistic understanding of the past and the present, including the many contributions to the development of America by people from a wide variety of groupings and nations.
    - v. To encourage the child to be an active participant in the teaching-learning process in the school.
    - vi. To suggest ways by which all individuals may contribute toward bringing the realities of the democratic civic culture closer to its ideals.
- b. With respect to teachers, we recommend: (pp. 47-49)
    - i. More effective teaching and specific courses in intergroup relations in the preservice education of teachers going into elementary school education.
    - ii. Extensive inservice education in intergroup relations, with opportunities for modified forms

of sensitivity training; study of some basic writings in the field; depth exposure to and teaching of specific intergroup relations curricula; group discussions of experiences in classroom teaching of such curricula; opportunities to examine many kinds of instructional resources (for students and teachers) in intergroup relations; and evaluation of such inservice programs so that they can be constantly improved.

iii. A clear and definite understanding by teachers that all physically and mentally healthy children can learn and learn well irrespective of their inclusion in any racial, religious, ethnic, or national-origin category.

iv. That teachers view their students as distinct and unique individuals and that the students receive as much individual attention from the teacher as is humanly possible.

v. That the teaching by the teacher maximize possibilities for students to participate with her in the teaching-learning process, that it be dramatic and articulate, that it demonstrate compassion for the disadvantaged, and that it genuinely reflect the vital importance of the role of the teacher himself or herself in advancing democratic intergroup relations in the United States.

c. With respect to students, we would hope that they would be considered delightful human beings; capable of learning and learning well irrespective of inclusion in any racial, religious, ethnic, or national-origin category; naturally having positive and negative biases and prejudices about all kinds of people and groups; but having the potential to be reached through the teaching-learning process so as substantially to reduce such negative biases and prejudices. (pp. 49, 50)

d. With respect to the teaching-learning process, we recommend: (pp. 50-53)

   i. That the process be oriented toward advancing students to specific goals or objectives for intergroup relations education.

   ii. That the realities of life in America be explored in the classroom and that the community be used as a classroom itself.

   iii. That students fully participate in the classroom teaching-learning process.

   iv. That the emotions, sensitivities, confrontations, testing, probing, challenging, and other affective interactions associated with relations among all kinds of different human beings be made a significant part of the teaching-learning process.

   v. That the process of intergroup relations education not be neglected in the various kinds of classrooms which are basically homogeneous in terms of race, national origin, ethnic categories, or religion, so that students in a homogeneous situation may learn about other categories of human beings.

e. With respect to instructional materials, we feel that books with integrated pictures and stories and units devoted to black history or some other specific group are an improvement over instructional materials used before the 1960's, but that, nevertheless, some very innovative designs and approaches to instructional resources should also be used in the classroom. Specifically, we recommend that students have ample opportunity to develop and even write their own materials or portfolios by drawing from their experiences, observations, magazines, newspapers, and other sources. These portfolios should be an integral part of an intergroup relations curriculum and should reflect inductive teaching and discovery and inquiry by the student. Textbook publishers should also make significant contributions by focusing their materials more on inductive processes, multimedia, emotions, the realities of life in our society, and a balanced presentation of man and society in the United States, yesterday and today. (pp. 53, 54)

f. We recommend that the structure and content of the curriculum be organized to meet our recommendations with respect to teachers and teaching, students and learning, the teaching-learning process, and instructional materials. This includes flexibility in scheduling (especially to give time for teacher interactions); subject matter which will better enable teachers to meet their obligations in intergroup relations education; provisions for visitations among students from different kinds of schools; and other recommendations which many experts have submitted with respect to curriculum. (pp. 54-56)

g. We recommend that administrators acquaint themselves with desirable goals for intergroup relations education and lend every possible support to teachers and educational processes designed to advance students toward those goals. Administrators should participate with teachers in inservice programs, especially in modified sensitivity-training processes, so that they may become thoroughly familiar with the needed processes and procedures designed to improve intergroup relations in the schools. (pp. 56, 57)

1. A major thrust, if not the major thrust, for improving democratic intergroup relations in the United States must be through the processes of education in the elementary schools of our nation.

a. There is a clear and pressing need to improve human relations among Americans so that the democratic civic culture of this nation may genuinely reflect and embody the ideals of the democratic doctrine.

## Supportive Research and Findings

The Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (New York: Bantam Books, 1968) set forth in considerable detail the status of human relations in the United States in our time. The Commission, headed by Governor Kerner of Illinois, explored in depth the causes and nature of the urban riots of the summer of 1967. A perusal of the Commission's findings (The Kerner Report) reveals the critical nature of intergroup relations in the United States. Among the many other reports and research projects in this area is the report by the Governor's (California) Commission on the Los Angeles riots of August, 1965. This report entitled Violence in the City--An End or a Beginning? (Los Angeles, December 2, 1965) was submitted by the Commission's chairman, John A. McCone. It is hardly necessary to set forth additional data to document this proposition.

> b. Although many attempts have been made to improve democratic intergroup relations through legislation, judicial action, employment, housing, urban redevelopment, action by all kinds of organizations, and so on, education is perhaps the most important institution and procedure for advancing democratic human relations in the United States. To paraphrase the Preamble to the Charter of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, if bigotry stems from the minds of men, it is through the minds of men that democratic human relations can best be improved.

## Supportive Research and Findings

There is no conceivable doubt that the environmental reality of many Americans, especially the disadvantaged in the inner cities, contributes to abrasive relations among people from all kinds of groups. Better housing, expanding employment and economic opportunities, laws, court action, and concerted efforts by many kinds of organizations will reduce tensions among people and will advance the democratic doctrine in many ways. The theory of this proposition, however, is that stereotypes and prejudices which lead to overt discrimination are acquired through mental processes, and thus it is largely through the mind and by education that we must attack the roots of prejudice and discrimination in our society.

The main "hope centers on education" to reverse the tide of discrimination. (Violence in the City, ibid., p. 49) "We believe that public education is one of the few--perhaps the only--major vehicles for achieving a constructive solution to the racial crisis that threatens the existence of our country. Public education as an agency of society can be properly directed to serve that great purpose." (Integrated Education, July-August, 1968, pp. 22-23, published by the Integrated Education Associates and edited by Meyer Weinberg) See also John S. Coleman, et al., Equality of Educational Opportunity (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1966).

We also hold with Gordon W. Allport: "While education--especially specific intercultural education--apparently helps engender tolerance, we note that it by no means invariably does so. The correlation is appreciable /between education and tolerance/but not high. Therefore we cannot agree with those enthusiasts who claim that 'the whole problem of prejudice is a matter of education.'" (Gordon W. Allport, The Nature of Prejudice. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Anchor Books, 1958) We would not claim that education would solve "the whole problem of prejudice." On the other hand, since the publication of this book, much research has indicated that the processes of education in the schools can do much more than they have to reduce prejudice and advance democratic human relations (not "tolerance" --a term which is condescending and therefore unacceptable).

c. While we are abundantly aware of how much education in human relations takes place in the family, in the environment of the individual, in peer groups, churches and other religious institutions, through media, and in various kinds of organizations, nevertheless the school is the central educational institution for advancing democratic human relations.

## Supportive Research and Findings

"Education" constantly takes place, whether in schools or in many other institutions and environments or by groups and media. We tend to agree with Marshall McLuhan that "more instruction is going on outside the classroom--many times more every minute of the day than goes on inside the classroom. That is, the amount of information that is embedded in young minds per minute outside the classroom far exceeds anything that happens inside the classroom . . . and this is going to increase enormously." (Marshall McLuhan, "From Instruction to Discovery" in The Teacher's Guide to Media and Methods, October, 1966, pp. 8-9)

The school, however, is the critical public agency in the domain of education in intergroup relations. Professor Jack Dennis makes this incisive observation:

> Anyone who initiates an investigation into the essential forces at work in the transmission of a political culture from one generation to the next, and does this within the context of a national modern society, is almost forced to pay attention to the role of the school. The reasons for this lie in great part in the very definition of the goals of the school system in a modern society. The school normally represents the official, overt, deliberate attempt of a society to reproduce its characteristic patterns of behavior, as well as to provide for future adaptiveness . . . it is likely to be society's foremost official agency for inculcating supportive orientations toward the political community, the regime, the government, the political system as a whole and for defining the role of individuals within the system. (Jack Dennis, A Study of the Role of the School in Political Socialization. Medford, Massachusetts: Lincoln Filene Center, Tufts University, 1965, p. 1)

A leading scholar of politics notes that "all national educational systems indoctrinate the oncoming generation with the basic outlooks and values of the political order." (V. O. Key, Jr., Public Opinion and American Democracy. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1961, p. 31) Two other authorities note that "the public school appears to be the most important and effective instrument of political socialization in the United States." (Robert D. Hess and Judith V. Torney, The Development of Political Attitudes in Children. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1967, p. 101)

One might claim that these are views with respect to the political socialization of the child and therefore not applicable to education in intergroup relations. As we shall note below, the many studies we have seen with respect to how young children acquire political attitudes and values have direct relevance to how they develop attitudes and values toward intergroup relations. It is of particular importance to point out that both politics and intergroup relations are largely in the affective domain--that of feelings, attitudes, values, emotions, and sensitivities. Thus the research pinpointing the vital importance of the school as the central public agency for political learning is definitely applicable to the role of the school in the realm of intergroup relations education. And who would deny the fact that such terms as "political culture" (Dennis) and "political order" (Key) are essential to any discussion of intergroup relations in our society?

Society and Education, by Robert J. Havighurst, Bernice L. Neugarten, and Jacqueline M. Falk (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1968), provides much research concerning the importance of the school as an agent of socialization and social change in society. See also John P. DeCecco, Human Learning in the School (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1967).

> d. Although enormous energies have been expended on extensive programs which seek to improve the capacity of the school to advance democratic human relations, including desegregation, integration, compensatory education, improved school buildings and facilities, new technologies, decentralization and community control patterns, and so on, it is submitted that the main focus should be on the actual processes of education. By this we mean that it is such factors as teachers, students, teaching-learning processes, instructional materials, curriculum organization and content, and administrative activity that will be the fundamental agents of change toward better democratic human relations through education in our schools.

## Supportive Research and Findings

> We are convinced that a most pervasive problem in American schooling is the need for improving instructional techniques and processes. In any national effort to improve our schools the decision-makers at all levels of education, and the public as well, must give immediate attention to the principles and methods of teaching and learning.

This important statement is contained in the study Innovation in Education: New Directions for the American School (New York: Committee for Economic Development, July, 1968) and represents the views of some leading American citizens and educators. The central point of that study and many others is that the key element of education in the school, the teaching-learning process, too often and for too long has been given a priority lower than other schemes for educational improvement, such as daring mixtures of bricks, mortar, and glass in the construction of a new school, or bussing of students. This is, of course, not to deny the contributions of other programs and policies designed to advance democratic human relations through the schools. It is only to say that the prime focus should be on educational process in the classrooms. Boston City Councilman Thomas I. Atkins pointed out that "every year we'll find at least one more school racially imbalanced. But I'm not convinced there's any one to one relationship between segregation and bad education. There's more of a relation to bad education from bad teaching, bad curriculum." (The Boston Herald Traveler, December 4, 1968)

The research and evaluation dealing with the extent to which integration, decentralization, compensatory education, innovative technologies, and new school facilities are making a genuine contribution to improving democratic human relations among young people are mixed and varied. Let us assume, however, that a racially integrated classroom--whether it is brought about by redrawing district lines or by bussing--does help young people from different backgrounds to appreciate and understand one another better than before. Would this really be the case if these children were exposed to a bigoted teacher, didactic teaching, ancient instructional materials, an inflexible curriculum, and no attempt through the process of education itself to advance these students toward desirable educational goals in intergroup relations?

When people talk or write about improving intergroup relations through education in the schools, they spend inordinate amounts of time on practically all dimensions of education but the actual process. When they touch on process, it is too often a touch and then on to such matters as integration or new school buildings. The Kerner Report (op. cit.) did recommend some process changes; however, it never mentioned such vital elements in the process as inductive teaching, discovery by the learner, teacher attitudes, flexible curricula, and so on, which are absolutely essential to any prospect of advancing intergroup relations through education in the schools. In other instances, attempts at educational change which presumably have some association with intergroup relations become immersed in politics and community conflict. Wallace Roberts in his article, "The Battle for Urban Schools" (Saturday Review, November 16, 1968, pp. 97 ff.), points out that the protracted teachers' strike in New York City in the fall of 1968 was one gigantic power play among groups seeking to advance their respective vested interests. The main losers, of course, were students; and in this and other situations, very little or no attention is paid to processes which can help them to become better citizens in a racially and culturally diverse society.

Our basic point is that all the other programs, activities, and policies which seek to improve intergroup relations through education in our schools will have little value if the actual teaching-learning process in the classrooms is not advancing students toward desired objectives for democratic intergroup relations in our society. It is submitted that our central efforts should be in improving all dimensions and components of this process.

e. While considerable effort is being directed toward improving the teaching-learning processes at all age levels, the principal point of intervention and concentration should be at the age levels of five through twelve, where young people acquire their basic attitudes and values with respect to intergroup relations.

## Supportive Research and Findings

> . . . the kinds of explanation and hence of understanding of human behavior that one comes to favor are set fairly early in life. . . . once they are set, it is most difficult to upset them. . . . these early and deeply set explanatory principles serve as the main guidelines to thinking about all subsequent social problems.

This authoritative statement by Professor Melvin Tumin (Roy D. Price, ed., Needed Research in the Teaching of the Social Studies. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1964, p. 46) reaffirms the point many have made for years--that the values, attitudes, and emotions preadolescents acquire in the process of their being socialized into the American civic culture (or any civic culture) tend to be with them throughout their lives. Our central point with respect to the above proposition is that values and attitudes supportive of democratic intergroup relations can be and should be developed in young children through processes of education in the elementary school.

There are, of course, many agents of socialization which orient the child into the civic culture and which transmit the values of that culture to the young. Furthermore, there are many categories of socialization. Some are politics, intergroup relations, sex, economics, manners, and so on. Earlier we noted that we have drawn from many studies of political socialization to shed more light on the intergroup relations socialization of the child. The principal connective link between the two is in the area of values, attitudes, feelings, and emotions--or the affective domain of education and/or socialization. We have found many interesting parallels also between intergroup relations socialization and sexual socialization. (See Ira L. Reiss, "The Sexual Renaissance in America," a special edition of The Journal of Social Issues, April, 1966. The statement on page 19 is of particular interest." . . . /Freud's main contention/ that normal heterosexual development is determined by a child's familial relationships and social experiences rather than by simple biological factors, seems to be borne out by available data.") This suggests comparative research and approaches to the affective socialization of the child into the American culture.

As we view the research dealing with how young people acquire attitudes and values about sameness and difference among human beings in our society, we find that the family and the child's "social experiences" (and not biological factors) are the most powerful forces in the shaping of early attitudes and values. The following studies are of particular importance in this connection: Allport, op.cit., especially Chapter 18, "The Young Child," and Chapter 19, "Later Learning"; Kenneth B. Clark, Prejudice and Your Child (Boston: Beacon Press, 1963, 2nd edition); Mary Ellen Goodman, Race Awareness in Young Children (Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Press, Inc., 1952); and Helen G. Trager and Marian Radke Yarrow, They Learn What They Live: Prejudice in Young Children (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952).

There are, of course, many studies which take up the matter of the transmission of "group characteristics" and intelligence through genes. A very major thesis of intergroup relations education is that the behavior of the person is not attributable to the color of his skin, his national origin, his religion, or his ethnic identity. Social behavior is learned or imitated and is not innate. A broad study on this matter which had intelligence as its central focus is that of Melvin M. Tumin entitled Race and Intelligence (New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1963). This UNESCO-sponsored study declared that there were no measurable differences between what is due to innate capacity and what is the result of environmental influences, training, and education. Tests which made allowance for most differences in environmental opportunities showed essential similarity in mental characteristics among all human groups. Many other studies support this point.

Therefore, prejudice and stereotypic thinking and acting clearly are learned by very young people from their families and their environmental situations. Studies focusing on the preschool affective development of the child include the following: Martin Deutsch, Irwin Katz, and Arthur R. Jensen, eds., Social Class, Race, and Psychological Development (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1968); Judith D. R. Porter, Racial Concept Formation in Pre-School Children (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1961);

and Samuel G. Sava, "When Learning Comes Easy," Saturday Review, November 16, 1968, pp. 102 ff.

In brief, many children come to kindergarten or the first grade with fairly fixed views about themselves and others. Minority-group children, especially blacks, become aware of their life situation by the age of four or five. Irrespective of learning their plight from parents, they realize from environmental and, in particular, from media messages that they occupy an inferior status in American life. They learn about this status very early in life. White children receive messages generally supportive of their position from environments and media. For many young black children, patterns of negative self-concept and self-dislike become imbedded in their personalities well before they enter school. They, as well as white children, tend to internalize negative evaluations of blacks and positive appraisals of whites. Many black children express the wish to be white. See Clark, op. cit., John Fischer, "Race and Reconciliation: The Role of the School" in Daedalus, Winter, 1966; and Goodman and Porter, op. cit.

We have firmly stated that the school and the processes of education should attack this problem. Some might say that the school has no role whatever in affecting values and attitudes of the young. It is our claim, however, that the school must assume this obligation. Unconsciously or consciously, the school, school personnel, instructional materials, and the teaching-learning process have not been effective in advancing democratic intergroup relations among the young people who enter school doors for the first time. And unless the school, educational processes and personnel attack the problem of prejudice and bigotry in our society--a problem which begins even before the child comes to school--there will be little or no opportunity to reverse the situation once he enters the adolescent phase of his life. Therefore, the critical point of intervention by the major public agency which can attack the problem of adverse intergroup relations in our society is during the elementary school years of the child.

For the reader who wants further research and bibliographical references on the intergroup relations socialization of the child, we recommend a doctoral dissertation by Edward C. Clawson entitled A Study of Attitudes of Prejudice Against Negroes in an All-White Community (Pennsylvania State University, Graduate School, Department of Elementary Education, 1968).

2. The challenge and responsibility of improving intergroup relations in the United States through processes of education in the elementary schools of our nation are not currently being met.

This broad critique has seven dimensions, all dealing with the elements of education. They are concerned with educational objectives, teachers, students, the teaching-learning process, instructional materials, the curriculum, and the school administrators responsible for the process of education in the elementary school.

a. Most schools lack specific educational objectives for improving democratic human relations and assume that "citizenship education" as a rather vague goal will generally suffice.

## Supportive Research and Findings

Although it is generally true that the vast majority of schools in the United States have as one of their major objectives the molding of "good citizens," we know of only a very few which articulate in any precise manner what this goal means in terms of processes which help to advance young people toward democratic intergroup relations. Without specific educational objectives, those responsible for the process of education have no real understanding of the direction in which they are leading students, have no effective means of relating processes to objectives, and have no way of evaluating the cognitive and affective development of the learner with respect to his advance toward objectives.

Melvin Tumin notes the following:

> . . . the schools are for children; /curriculum/ whatever it includes, is good or bad depending on what it does for students; and no amount of curriculum reform will have the slightest significance if it doesn't ask the right kind of questions at the outset.
>
> There is one major question when choosing (or developing) a curriculum: What do we want our children to become? If we translate this question into somewhat more operational questions, these would include: What do we want our children to value? What do we want them to be able to feel and see and hear and smell and touch? From what do we want them to learn to get pleasure? What do we want them to understand about themselves and the world of nature and man? How do

> we want them to behave toward other human beings? To what do we want them to be inclined to commit themselves? What technical abilities do we wish to cultivate in them?
>
> . . . Then we can ask, sensibly, what has to be present in the way of teacher behavior, student behavior, materials, experiences, and supporting school factors that will enable that relationship to produce the desired outcome in the child? (Melvin M. Tumin, "Teaching in America," Saturday Review, October 21, 1967, p. 21)

Professor Tumin cites the need for goals before we can address ourselves to what is needed to improve the process of education. We thus are critical, first, of the general absence of specific educational goals for students in our schools in the area of intergroup relations.

> b. Most elementary school teachers are inadequately prepared for teaching about democratic human relations and only rarely receive effective and relevant inservice education in this field. Furthermore, many teachers feel uneasy about teaching what often is considered to be sensitive subject matter in the classroom, and they generally lack the skills necessary for effective teaching about democratic human relations.

### Supportive Research and Findings

i. Preservice education in intergroup relations:

Unfortunately, the Kerner Report (op. cit.) does not mention education in its sections on "What Happened?" and "Why Did it Happen?" with respect to the civil disorders of 1967. In the section of the report entitled "What Can Be Done?," however, the inadequacies of teachers and teaching are cited (see pages 428-430), and the report calls for major changes in the preservice education of teachers in intergroup relations and with respect to the disadvantaged. The issue is not only preparing people for inner-city teaching, however--the problem is much broader. With very few exceptions, colleges, schools, and departments of education are doing remarkably little to prepare teachers going into all kinds of elementary schools in the United States as persons and as teachers to meet the challenges of advancing democratic intergroup relations through education. One professor of education asks, "Are we preparing teachers to have a thorough understanding of what racism in education is and what the roles and responsibilities of teachers are? No, we are not. The time is late. Time is not on our side." (Integrated Education, edited by Meyer Weinberg, July-August, 1968, p. 22)

Although many people are asking this kind of question, few of those with responsibility for the preservice education of our teachers are doing much about it. The Lincoln Filene Center has made a content analysis of the textbooks most widely used in elementary social studies education, where one would expect to find the principal focus on intergroup relations. Again, the near vacuum is amazing and incomprehensible. See, for instance, a recent textbook widely used in this area, Ralph C. Preston, Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 3rd edition). It is true, of course, that many schools of education, especially the better ones, do have some courses and programs in intergroup relations; however, there appears to be little concerted attention to the broad problem of education in intergroup relations for the beginning teacher.

ii. Inservice education in intergroup relations:

Again, as a general observation, we submit that inservice educational programs for teachers in intergroup relations are few and weak. Title XI (National Defense Education Act) institutes for teachers of disadvantaged youth have addressed themselves to this area; however, these institutes have reached a very small percentage of elementary school teachers in the United States, and some evaluation of the effectiveness of these institutes reveals that the participants became polarized with respect to the main problems of intergroup relations and education of the advantaged. This certainly was the experience of the Lincoln Filene Center's two institutes in this area. Some inservice programs for teachers in intergroup relations certainly are making an important contribution to improving intergroup relations education. The vast majority of school systems in the United States, however, are doing very little or nothing to provide effective inservice educational programs in this area for their teaching staff.

iii. Uneasiness and lack of teacher sensitivity in teaching about intergroup relations in the classroom:

Responses to pre-audits in Lincoln Filene Center inservice teacher education programs in intergroup relations repeatedly indicate that teachers feel very uneasy in discussing intergroup relations in the classroom. Some (probably the more prejudiced) say that this is not a problem, that their children are not prejudiced, and that this is not a proper subject for study in the elementary school classroom (see 2-c, below). There is no doubt that teachers without adequate education and training will naturally feel uneasy in bringing intergroup relations into the teaching-learning process. It is also true that many fine teachers do a genuinely effective job in this area. We only cite the overall problem (and thus the need for effective preservice and inservice education).

We also make the point that teachers must become sensitive to the emotional issues and problems of intergroup relations and must become aware of their own prejudices and shortcomings with respect to those who are different from them. The minority of teachers who are overtly bigoted are substantially contributing to the deterioration of democratic human relations among those with whom they come in contact. Nathan Wright notes, with respect to the civil disorders of the summer of 1967 and other inner-city riots by young people, "it was the teacher's bigotry or ignorance that made them lash out violently." (Let's Work Together. New York: Hawthorne Books, Inc., 1968, p. 69)

iv. Lack of skills necessary for effective teaching about democratic intergroup relations:

Effective teaching about intergroup relations calls for not only the sensitive teacher but also one who has the skills for enabling students to explore in the classroom the nature and realities of the diversity of the American society. Skills are needed for handling classroom dialogues and confrontations, many of which might be abrasive and emotional. The overarching approach so essential to effective teaching about intergroup relations in the classroom is the process of inductive teaching so that students can engage in inquiry, discovery, and other means of probing the basic fundamentals of intergroup relations. As we shall note in some detail in 2-c below, far too many teachers lack the skills needed.

Our comments with respect to teachers are not intended to be critical of teachers as persons. Our principal focus is on how little we are doing as a nation to equip our teachers to be truly effective agents of socialization in orienting our elementary school children into a democratic civic culture, one that ideally should reflect the richness of diversity in the American society. It is essential to be aware of the extensive shortcomings of teacher preparation, sensitivities, and skills so that we can cite specific measures to remedy this situation.

c. Too often it is assumed that elementary school learners or students know little or nothing about racial and cultural diversity and that they should not be exposed in the classroom to education in intergroup relations because this might well make them more prejudiced than would be the case if they had no exposure to intergroup relations in the school. Other assumptions and views about learners are that some by nature are less intelligent than others and therefore that such young people, especially inner-city blacks, cannot learn as much or as well as others. As we shall see, these assumptions are quite invalid.

### Supportive Research and Findings

i. Elementary school children know little or nothing about racial and cultural diversity:

Research cited on page 22 of this section should dispel the notion that elementary school children are not aware of the diversity of people in our society. It points out that much of this "awareness" is characterized by prejudicial thinking and discriminatory overt behavior by some young children toward some others. Patterns of prejudice and stereotyping begin quite early; we do not need to repeat this point. Nevertheless, Lincoln Filene Center pre-audits from teachers participating in Center inservice institutes in intergroup relations reveal that 54% of these teachers feel their students have little or no awareness of skin-color, religious, or ethnic differences among people.

ii. Exposure to intergroup relations in the elementary school classroom might well make children more prejudiced toward others who are different from them:

Some teachers make this claim, probably as a camouflage for not doing anything about education in intergroup relations. We know of no available data which say that an effective program of intergroup relations at the elementary school level will make children more prejudiced. We do know, however, that the absence of a viable program in intergroup relations in the classroom does not mean that the elementary school child is not getting an education in intergroup relations outside the classroom. The same point can be made about sex education and many other areas of the socialization of the child. We have noted on page 16 of this section that far more human relations or social education

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The Lincoln Filene Center takes pleasure in announcing an expanded program in intergroup relations education for elementary schools. The three basic parts of the program include the two-volume study, *The Intergroup Relations Curriculum: A Program for Elementary School Education*, a collection of 20 large photographs designed for use as instructional resources in conjunction with the Curriculum, and an inservice program for teachers, "The Intergroup Relations Seminar."

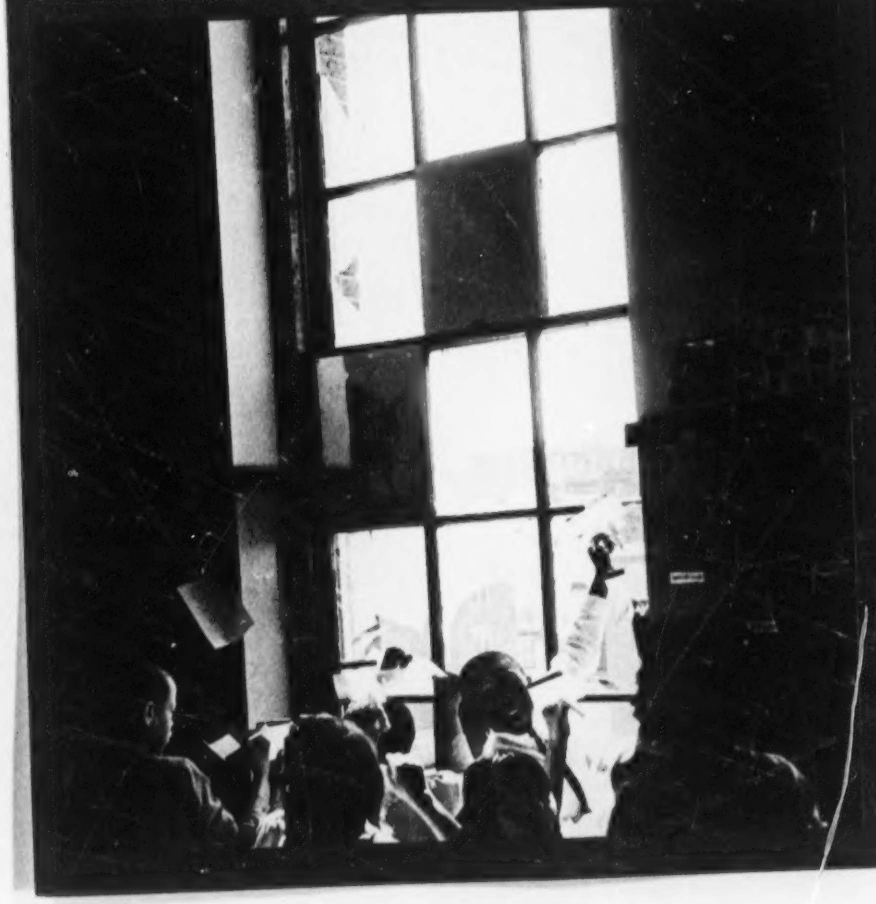
The Intergroup Relations Curriculum is the product of more than six years of research, development, teacher education, and evaluation by the Lincoln Filene Center in this vital field with support from the United States Office of Education as well as from private agencies. Thousands of students and teachers have used the Curriculum in the elementary school teaching-learning process and have found it of considerable value in advancing students and teachers alike toward democratic behavioral patterns in intergroup relations.

### The Intergroup Relations Curriculum : A Program for Elementary School Education

*Edited by John S. Gibson, Director, Lincoln Filene Center*

This two-volume study (or Green Books), published in January, 1969, is basic to the entire program in intergroup relations at the elementary school level. Green Book I outlines the background of this curriculum development project and places it within the broader framework of intergroup relations in contemporary American life. Green Book II describes how the Curriculum has been used in schools, and it focuses on various patterns of inservice programs for elementary schoolteachers and administrators. Evaluation and dissemination procedures are also included in this volume.

Green Book II presents the actual Curriculum, with sections on the intellectual foundations of the Curriculum and how to begin teaching the Curriculum at all elementary school levels. This volume also contains twenty extensive learning activities and two broad instructional units (Indians and the Declaration of Independence) as well as bibliographies on instructional resources for students and teachers.



Many teachers have reported that they are able to launch the teaching of the Curriculum in their classrooms on the basis of the information and procedures set forth in Green Book II.

### The Intergroup Relations Photographic Collection

The photographs on these pages are from a collection of twenty 20″ x 16″ candid photographs of people from all races engaged in many patterns of activity in the urban environment. They are the work of Mr. Major Morris, a gifted photographer on the Center's staff. They serve as a valuable tool for stimulating class discussions and learning activities set forth in Green Book II.

The pictures can be used as a springboard to get children to explore some of the similarities and differences among people and the ways in which they interact. The pupils might also examine whatever tendencies they may have to prejudge or stereotype people on the basis of their appearance or group affiliation. Some teachers might want to make the photographs the focus of exercises in descriptive or narrative writing. In whatever way the teacher chooses to employ these photographs, they should be a significant and artistic addition to any classroom.

### The Intergroup Relations Seminar

The Seminar is a series of 10 two-hour sessions which comprise a significant inservice program for teachers in the area of intergroup relations education.

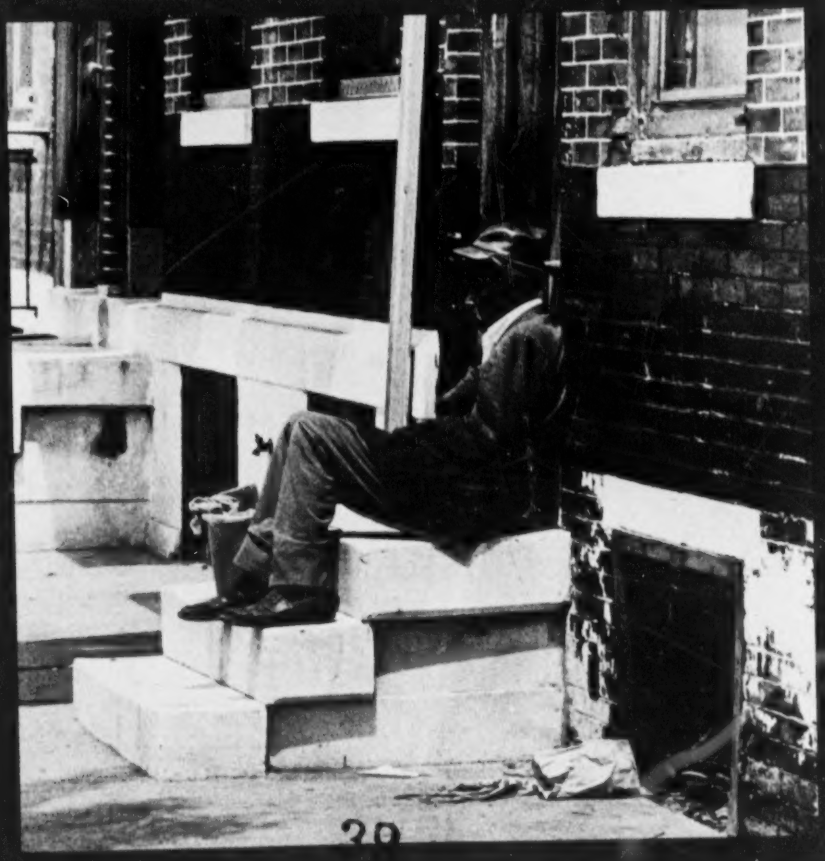
The Seminar is based on the Center's Intergroup Relations Curriculum for elementary schools and is designed to provide participants with a curriculum and skills for advancing democratic human relations in their elementary school classrooms. The Seminar can also provide the necessary training so that Seminar participants may give the Seminar to their colleagues in their own school systems. The Center firmly believes in the multiplier concept in teacher education so that effective intergroup relations education programs may be conducted on as wide a basis as possible.

Basic to the Seminar is a manual for the Seminar Director, a competent member of the instructional staff of the school system. The manual sets forth the concise schedule of the 10 two-hour sessions and describes in detail how the Director should conduct each session. A series of films have been specially prepared for the Seminar, including films which introduce the Seminar, outline the structure of the Intergroup Relations Curriculum, and take up the issue of teaching intergroup relations in elementary school classrooms. Also provided are films on themes of the minority experience in America and ones dealing with prejudice and the sensitive teacher. The Seminar also features demonstration films on specific learning activities in the Curriculum which show how to teach these activities to students (grades 2 through 6). The manual also suggests a number of options for expanding the Seminar.

The Seminar provides an inservice program which calls upon teachers not only to listen and discuss but also to teach innovative learning activities on a pilot basis in their classrooms. Hopefully, the Seminar will lead to much more extensive teaching about intergroup relations by those teachers who participate in Seminar sessions.

We might add that all three facets of the Center's program in intergroup relations education are being modified and improved through continuous research and uses of feedbacks which we constantly receive from school systems using the Curriculum. Only in this way can intergroup relations education respond to the needs of the time and the vital necessity of advancing democratic human relations through education.

The cost of the Seminar (five sets of both volumes of the Green Book, the manual, rental of films, and one set of the photographic collection) is $500.00. Mr. Major Morris, Director of Intergroup Relations Programs at the Lincoln Filene Center would be glad to discuss with you arrangements for using the Seminar in your school system. He is particularly concerned with discussing a number of options for Center presentation of different kinds of Seminars, and at different costs, depending on time, personnel and resources.



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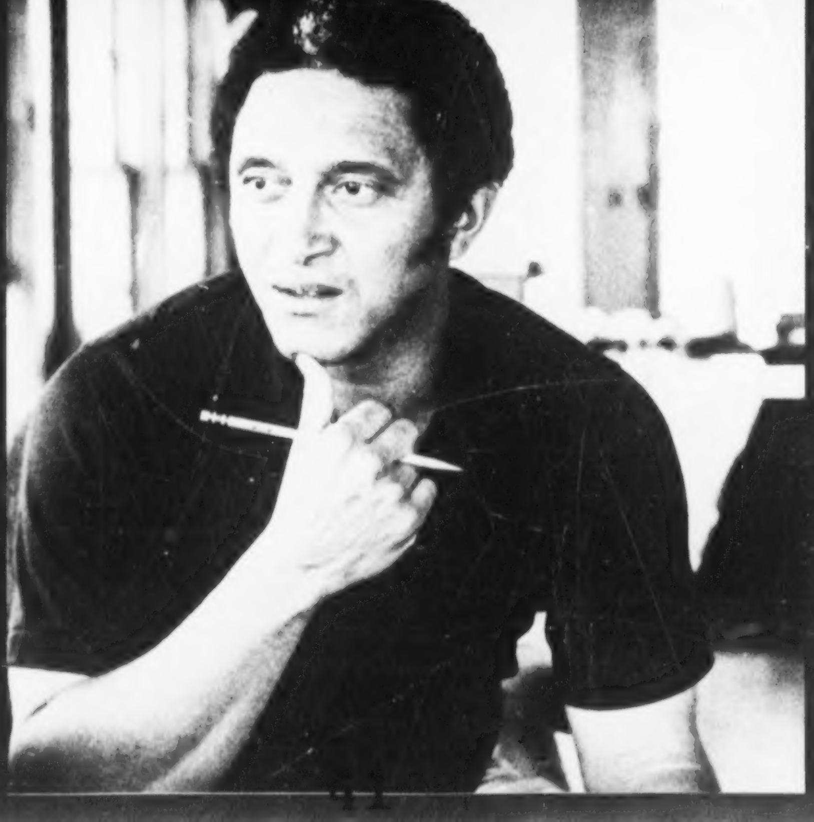

takes place outside the classroom than within. See Raymond B. Cattell and H. John Butcher, The Prediction of Achievement and Creativity (Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1968), especially Chapter 12, which focuses upon educational achievement in a variety of racial and regional groups, the correlation of economic level and social class, and the correlations of school, neighborhood, facilities, and atmosphere. A number of research findings are cited with respect to the impact of environment on differences between the races and the point is made that no research results exist to suggest that differences in learning are inherent (see iii below). The impact of media upon the intergroup relations awareness of the child tells us how much he learns or absorbs outside the classroom. See Center Forum (The Center for Urban Education) and its issue of October 20, 1968, on the impact of television in the lives of poor children. See also Wilbur Schram, Jack Lyle, and Edwin B. Parker, Television in the Lives of Our Children (Palo Alto, California: Stanford University Press, 1961). To claim, then, that education in intergroup relations should not take place in the classroom because a discussion and examination of differences among people might make children become more prejudiced is to assume (1) that no intergroup relations education takes place among young people; (2) that even if it does, it should take place outside of the classroom; or (3) that even if one claims it should be part of the school's curriculum, it will only worsen intergroup relations among children--or all three.

iii. Some students by nature (usually nonwhites) cannot learn as well as others (usually whites):

On page 21 of this section, we offered research and findings to oppose the thesis that human behavioral differences are based upon nature and not nurture. Much miseducation in the area of intergroup relations may be traced to assumptions by teachers, administrators, and many others that blacks, Indians, and people from other nonwhite groupings are poor or slow learners by nature. Translated into educational processes, these assumptions have been devastating with respect to the chances of children who are not white to share equal educational opportunity with whites. One can cite the Coleman Report (op.cit.) and other studies to confirm the point that many children, blacks in particular, "don't learn because teachers don't expect them to." See Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jackson, Pygmalion in the Classroom (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1968). William H. Boyer and Paul Walsh, in their brilliant article in Saturday Review of October 19, 1968, entitled, "Are Children Born Unequal?" make these exceptionally important comments:

> The metaphysics of natural inequality has served aristocracies well . . . . people are usually assumed to be not only different

in appearance but also innately unequal in intellectual capacity and therefore unequal in capacity to learn. Part of the problem is the way "intelligence" is defined. It can be defined in many different ways, each leading to a somewhat different educational direction. We can view it as environmental adaptation, as ability to solve problems, as ability to use logical convergent thinking, or it can emphasize divergent thinking and the creation of ideas and problems. When intelligence is defined as abstract verbal-conceptual ability drawing on modal experiences of middle class environment, as it is in most IQ tests, a selection has been made which excludes many other plausible and often more useful directions. What is particularly important is whether intelligence is defined primarily as the input or the output. The input is not subject to control, but the output depends on experience; so it is intelligence as output that should be the central concern of the educator.

Intelligence and learning are many things, and too often the measures we use for judging them are not those which reflect the diversity of our society or the "output" behaviors necessary for the support and strengthening of that society. With respect to this issue as it affects the disadvantaged child, see Joe L. Frost and Glenn R. Hawkes (ed.), The Disadvantaged Child: Issues and Innovations (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966); Frank Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1962); and Staten W. Webster, The Disadvantaged Learner: Knowing, Understanding, Educating (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1966).

Our concern is for all elementary school children and not just for the economically disadvantaged. An excellent study of how white, suburban children are miseducated with respect to democratic intergroup relations and the diversity of American society is that by Alice Miel in her The Shortchanged Children of Suburbia (New York: Institute Human Relations Press, 1967). In suburbia and affluent areas of urban centers, it is widely assumed that white children can learn better and more than those who are not white. The young white student, however, is too often walled off from the diverse nature of his society, and his education, which reflects this attitude, does not equip him with the learnings and behaviors he needs to live effectively in an integrated society. This student is shortchanged in his lack of contact with diverse elements of American society.

d. The teaching-learning process in intergroup relations is generally characterized by teachers lecturing or exhorting students to be "good citizens" and thus by

> little or no participation by students in the process; by avoiding emotions or sensitive confrontations among students and between students and teachers in the classroom; and often by the absence of significant links between the ideals of the democratic society and the real life situations of many students.

## Supportive Research and Findings

1. *The teaching-learning process in intergroup relations is generally characterized by teachers' lectures or exhortations to students to be "good citizens" and thus includes little or no student participation in the process:*

Unfortunately, this statement can be applied to too much of the process of education in American schools. It is, however, directly pertinent to the matter of education in intergroup relations. Studies by Arno Bellac at Teachers College, Columbia University, and by others, reveal how much teachers dominate each classroom and thus hinder students from participating in the teaching-learning process.

What is the significance of student participation in this process? The answer is that the extent to which we deprive a student of participation in the teaching-learning process in the school may well be the extent to which we reduce his capacity to be an effective participant as an adult citizen in later years. Sidney Verba points out that "in a society where participation is a value, inability to participate represents a severe deprivation." ("Democratic Participation" in *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science,* September, 1967, p. 53) The skills and habits fundamental to effective participation must be acquired early, and this means during elementary school education. But the problem goes further. Participation in the teaching-learning process helps the student to learn more, to learn better, and to become a more effective participant in the community at large. On the first two points, see Henry E. Kagan, *Changing the Attitude of Christian Toward Jew: A Psychological Approach Through Religion* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1952); Benjamin Bloom, "Thought Processes in Lectures and Discussions," in *Journal of General Education,* July, 1954, pp. 160-169; and David C. Dietrick, "Review of Research" in Hill's *A Comparative Study of Lecture and Discussion Methods* (New York: Fund for Adult Education, 1960, pp. 90-118). On the protracted value of participation in the educational process, see Verba, *op. cit.* The central point is that young people will not be better "democratic citizens" in intergroup relations if they are told to "love their neighbor," to memorize this, and are denied the opportunity to find out about "neighbors" through processes of discovery and inquiry--or through participatory activities in the teaching-learning process. Hess notes that "exposure to such rhetoric as that of the Bill of Rights does very little to bring about effective understanding of how an individual may interact with the system to support it or change it." (Robert D. Hess, Harvard Educational Review, Summer, 1968) Thus it is imperative that the student be truly engaged in educational processes so that he may inquire into and discover for himself the real meaning of intergroup relations, and not simply be told (if, indeed, he is) that it is essential for us to have democratic intergroup relations in this nation. A very strong critique that we level at the process of education is that so much teaching is didactic and expository and that the student is deprived of an opportunity for discovery and inquiry, although these are fundamental to acquiring an ability to sort out the basic elements of relations among many different kinds of people in our society.

ii. The teaching-learning process in intergroup relations is generally devoid of emotions and sensitive confrontations among students and between teacher and students:

Relations among all kinds of people involve emotions, sensitivities, ambiguous and frank confrontations, evasions of problems and open discussions of them, sympathetic understandings among people and misunderstandings among people who have prejudgments, and thus often misjudgments, about others who are "different." The realm of feelings, values, attitudes, emotions, and sensitivities is the affective domain of education, and this domain of human relations is rarely explored in the elementary school classroom. Yet these emotions and sensitive confrontations must be given their proper and natural place in the educational process in such classrooms. Hess notes that "the teaching of social and political interaction /in our schools/ omits both the components of emotion and of action /i, above/--the two elements that are most likely to effect change." (Hess, Harvard Educational Review, op. cit., p. 534) We shall return to this theme in e below. Our critique here is that there appears to be almost no genuine, sensitive exploration of the fundamental and human issues of relations among students and between students and teachers in our elementary school classrooms. Such dimensions of the affective domain of education must be dealt with in order "to effect change."

iii. The teaching-learning process in intergroup relations is often characterized by the absence of significant links between the ideals of the democratic society and the real-life situations of many students:

As we have noted earlier, many teachers feel satisfied that the teaching of general democratic principles reduces inclinations toward prejudice in children. It does not. See, in particular, Marian Radke, Helen G. Trager, and Hadassah

Davis, "Social Perceptions and Attitudes of Children," Genetic Psychology Monographs, XL (1949). Milton R. Konvitz states that "we have on the one hand our values, and, on the other, a considerable amount of data which show how inadequately the values are fulfilled. There is an unconscionable lag of time between proof of malfunction and its cure." (The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, May, 1967, p. 38) We preach and exhort the ideal; we too often forget about the reality. Hess feels that "it is no longer effective, perhaps, to think of socialization in terms of transmitting the norms (or ideals) of the system; a more useful perspective is the teaching of principles which underlie the normative statements." (Harvard Educational Review, op. cit., p. 534) We are guilty of not providing connective links in the process of education between the ideals we preach and the realities of our (and students') lives. Again, Hess notes that:

> . . . the teaching of /the ideals in the Bill of Rights/ has not sufficiently involved a comprehension of the underlying principles nor of the long-term consequences that will follow from ignoring basic rights. Because they apparently were assured, we have felt less urgency to teach understanding of the consequences of a departure from these traditional values . . . . In short, much of the political (and intergroup) socialization that takes place in elementary and high school levels is lacking in candor, is superficial with respect to basic issues, is cognitively fragmented, and produces little grasp of the implications of principles and their applications to new situations. (Ibid., p. 532)

The distance between the ideal of the democratic civic culture and its reality is particularly pronounced for the disadvantaged student. Let us consider these words by James Baldwin:

> . . . any Negro who is born in this country and undergoes the American educational system runs the risk of being schizophrenic. On the one hand he is born in the shadow of the stars and stripes and he is assured it represents a nation which has never lost a war. He pledges allegiance to that flag which guarantees "liberty and justice for all." He is part of a country in which anyone can become President, and so forth. But on the other hand he is also assured by his country and his countrymen that he has never contributed anything to civilization--that his past is nothing more than a record of humiliations gladly endured. He is assured by

> the republic that he, his father, his mother, and his ancestors were happy, shiftless, watermelon-eating darkies who loved Mr. Charlie and Miss Ann, that the value he has as a black man is proven by one thing only--his devotion to white people. ("A Talk to Teachers," Saturday Review, December 21, 1963)

The Kerner Report notes that "the quality of education offered by ghetto schools is diminished further by use of curricula and materials poorly adapted to the life-experience of their students. Designed to serve a middle class culture, much educational material appears irrelevant to the youth of the racial and economic ghetto" (op. cit., p. 434). In brief, the teaching-learning process too often emphasizes the ideals of the American democracy, but not its realities, past and present. The extent to which these realities are ignored by the teaching-learning process in the classroom may well be the extent to which students, especially those for whom realities are particularly grim, will ignore that process itself.

e. It is generally assumed that instructional materials which have pictures of black students, stories about blacks in suburbs, and considerable emphasis on key black figures in history, or which take the form of units on black history and so on, serve to make a substantial improvement in the teaching and learning about democratic human relations. This assumption is invalid.

### Supportive Research and Findings

The Lincoln Filene Center's curriculum improvement project was originally addressed to meeting the clear and enormous need for improving instructional materials in the area of intergroup relations. The powerful influence of textbooks upon elementary school students cannot be denied.

> Textbooks are still the single most important teaching tool. Put all your new teaching tools together--the projectors, the films, the teaching machines--and they're just a drop in the bucket compared to that old stand-by, the textbook. Invariably, the textbook is the basis of every curriculum. To an overwhelming extent, it determines what will be taught and when. (Statement by School Management and cited in Hillel Black's important study, The American Schoolbook. New York: William Morrow & Company, Inc., 1967, p. 3)

Miss Black adds that "the textbook and its even heftier manual will also determine how almost any subject will be taught." (Ibid., p. 3) She cites Dr. Bruce Joyce of Teachers College, Columbia, as follows:

> The typical elementary teacher is called upon to master a range of subjects from children's literature to reading and from math to science. Since few people can become experts in so many fields, the typical grade-school teacher relies heavily on the texts and guides. (Ibid., p. 5)

Miss Black says also:

> . . . more often than not the American school teacher serves as an adult presence who is no wiser or better than the textbooks her children use . . . . there may be some truth in the proposition that the professing art was first stricken by McGuffey's Eclectic Readers and interred in the manual to Dick and Jane. (Ibid.)

On the assumption that the textbook plays this powerful role in the education of elementary school students, the Lincoln Filene Center engaged in content analysis of elementary school readers and social studies texts in 1965. This study revealed how grossly inadequate was the communication of the diversity of America's past and present to students by words and pictures in the most widely used social studies textbooks and readers. (See Gibson and Kvaraceus, The Development of Instructional Materials Pertaining to Race and Culture in America, op. cit., Appendix F.) Other studies confirm this deplorable situation. (See Nancy Larrick, "The All-White World of Children's Books," Saturday Review, September 11, 1965; Loretta Golden, The Treatment of Minority Groups in Primary Social Studies. Palo Alto, California: Stanford University, Doctoral Dissertation, 1965; Irving Sloan, The Negro in American History Textbooks. Chicago: American Federation of Teachers, 1966; and Books for the Schools and the Treatment of Minorities. Hearings before the Ad Hoc Subcommittee on De Facto School Segregation of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, Eighty-Ninth Congress, 2nd session, August 23, 24, 30, 31, and September 1, 1966.)

One would think that by the end of 1968 the situation would have been vastly improved. The Kerner Report, however, noted:

> . . . until recently, few texts /in the elementary schools/ featured any Negro personalities. Few books used or courses reflected the harsh realities of life in the ghetto, or the

> contribution of Negroes to the country's culture and history. This failure to include materials relevant to their own environment has made students skeptical about the utility of what they are being taught. (Op. cit., p. 434)

Two 1968 studies of this matter report little improvement. One scholar found that:

> . . . an examination of six of the most used series of social studies for the fourth through the sixth grades revealed that there was scant reference to Negroes, and when reference was made, it presented the situation as it existed more than a century ago. No reference was found to any of today's problems and frustrations, or indeed to Negroes in this century. (Edward C. Clawson, A Study of Attitudes and Prejudice Against Negroes in an All-White Community. Pennsylvania State University Graduate School, Department of Elementary Education, Doctoral Dissertation, 1968) See also Dorothy Sterling, "The Soul of Learning," in The English Journal, February, 1968, pp. 166-180.

Miss Black adds that "among the perversions committed in the name of education, few equal the schoolbook's treatment of the Negro and his history" (op. cit., p. 106).

All of this is not necessarily to condemn the publishing industry but rather to point up the fact that the industry apparently responds to the educational market and, until recently, that market has not demanded any major changes. As noted above, however, our fundamental critique is that the changes that have been made revolve largely around coloring some figures in the elementary textbooks various shades of tan or brown, presenting some scenes of inner-city life in these books, emphasizing a few contributions to American life and history by some significant members of minority groups, and/or inserting four- or six-week units on black history. We contend that while these changes represent some improvements over the past, they simply do not meet the clear, present, and critical need to have instructional materials play a significant role in advancing students toward desired objectives for education in intergroup relations.

The reader will note in the commentary on instructional materials above many references to our previous criticisms of educational objectives, teachers, students, teaching-learning processes (including student participation, the inclusion of realities, and so on) and of curricula and administrators (see below). If our criticisms are valid with respect to these other dimensions of the process of education--and we believe they are--then certainly we need instructional materials which can function harmoniously with the other dimensions of the process--and we do not have them. Originally, the Center's curriculum improvement project, the subject of this report, was designed to meet the need for "appropriate instructional materials." But our research, development, and pilot operations in a number of schools indicated to us that "improved" instructional materials by themselves simply cannot substantially improve the quality and relevance of education in intergroup relations. Much more was needed, especially well-trained and sensitive teachers, inductive teaching, and the other dimensions of the process set forth in our critiques. We claim, therefore, that the improvements which have been made in these materials--people in different hues and colors, units, heroes, and so on--by themselves will make little difference to students. Yet school systems currently are spending millions of dollars on these "new" instructional materials on the assumption that they are making a significant difference. This is our most important criticism of the educational process in the domain of intergroup relations education.

What evidence do we have to support this criticism? Research and development by the Lincoln Filene Center in intergroup relations education at the elementary school level have definitely shown that instructional materials alone can do little to advance students toward desired behavioral objectives for democratic human relations. These findings are set forth to some extent in Section III of this study and in previous reports by the Center to the United States Office of Education. The Center takes the position that materials must coalesce with effective teaching by well-trained teachers and with other dimensions of the process of education; and since these views are reflected in the propositions, critiques, and recommendations set forth in the present section of this study, the entire history of this curriculum improvement project indicates that instructional materials by themselves can do little to advance democratic human relations through education. Yet as we have said, thousands and thousands of school systems apparently assume that the purchase of "integrated" instructional materials, units, or supplemental readers is all that is required to satisfy those who demand that these school systems do a better job in intergroup relations education. As we shall note later, a well-designed instructional program is needed, one that addresses itself to all the points raised by this study and others.

We have noted above how important instructional materials are in the process of education. If, then, these materials are substantially improved in the sense that more emphasis is given to black history, figures in the textbooks now come in many colors, more stress is laid on urban problems, and so on, why does not this thrust add up to a genuine improvement in intergroup relations education? It does not for the simple reason that administrators and teachers will assume that these "improved" materials will make a difference and they will delegate to the "improved" materials the responsibility for improving education in intergroup relations. Thus the same old patterns of education which we have criticized in this part of Section I will continue, and little or no change in students or teachers will take place. Why?

The answer to this question is that the "improved" instructional materials do not address themselves to the critiques set forth above, critiques which are well supported by research and experience submitted in this study and by many other authorities in the field of intergroup relations. Furthermore, the "improvements" are quite insufficient to meet the proven needs of effective education in intergroup relations.

On the first point, the "improved" materials and accompanying guides for teachers fail to spell out in any detail specific objectives for the cognitive and affective development of elementary school students in intergroup relations. Also, without adequate preservice and inservice education, teachers using these materials can give little or no support to what the materials seek to bring to children. Many assume that "improved" materials, by themselves, will meet the need. Of greater importance, the new materials generally are not planned for inductive teaching by the teacher or for discovery and inquiry by the student, all of which are virtually essential to effective education in intergroup relations. Thus the "improved" materials continue to preach to students without providing opportunities for student engagement in the teaching-learning process. Of equal importance, the "improved" materials rarely provide opportunities for student consideration of the emotions and sensitivities which are ingrained in intergroup relations. The materials are bland, idealistic, and emotionally neutral. They do not consider personal problems and emotions which children always experience, and they avoid the real guts of interactions between and among all kinds of people, children and adults.

In his review of William L. Katz's Eyewitness: The Negro in American History in Harvard Educational Review, Summer, 1968, Larry Cuban presents considerable support for these statements. Cuban, now with the United States Commission on Civil Rights, is one of the foremost authorities on Negro history and the treatment of minorities in instructional materials. He points out that the highly factual accounts of Negro history which now are interlaced in student textbooks are welcome, but do not really deal with emotions and action. They fail to present "the meaning of the Negro experience in America: three centuries of corrosive and oppressive relations between the races, with continual and persistent protests by black people . . . these texts sap the anger, the tragedy, and the healthy responses of being black in white America . . ." He finds that "what is missing . . . is the meaning of the Negro experience in America . . . points of view which can disturb." Cuban adds that the new "integrated" books lack "the elasticity to treat these (emotional issues) and other questions in depth." Cuban also points out that "any piece of material (or textbook) lives or dies in the hands of the teacher" and that little is done to "prepare teachers with the skills to develop their own materials and choose wisely from commercially-produced units."

On the second point, the "improvements" make little difference in advancing education in democratic intergroup relations. They are better than the materials which existed in the early 1960's, as researched by our surveys. "Integration" by color of people in the textbooks is not, however, significant. Integrated illustrations (while good) are not good enough.

> /With respect to Harlem school children's perceptions of pictures in such books/ the children did not favor didactic integration in their stories. For example, one book which centered attention on the introduction of a Negro boy to a white boy was unpopular, apparently because there was no dynamic plot element, and it seemed pointless to first grade children . . . the differences in taste between middle-class and Negro children has been emphasized far beyond reality. Even the stories of kings and queens and princesses and princes, if they are good ones--such as the Cinderella story, in which the disadvantaged child can have some identification with the poor disadvantaged Cinderella--are quite successful when the presentation is good.

Albert J. Harris and Coleman Morrison, The Craft Project (New York: Division of Teacher Education of The City University of New York, 1966) The full, final report of this study of reading approaches in first-grade teaching with disadvantaged children is available from Selected Academic Readings, Associated Educational Services Corporation, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10020. The study encompassed 1,141 inner-city, first-grade children. Recommendations emanating from this study will be presented below.

Miss Black notes in her study (The American Schoolbook, op. cit., p. 119) that attempts in Detroit to "integrate" textbooks through colors had little impact upon students:

> . . . the question was raised: How does the substitution of Negro and white characters for the typical all-white

> characters affect children? . . . the children made no mention of the fact that the group of playmates appearing in the City Schools books /created by the Detroit school system/ is racially mixed. In all classes, Caucasian, Mixed, and Negro, the children manifested a marked preference for the City School Series /the Detroit program/. When asked individually to indicate the child character they preferred as schoolmate and playmate, the children gave the highest rank to the Negro characters of the City School Series. Nevertheless every evidence indicated that the choices were made not on the basis of race. Instead, the children were intrigued by the realistic stories featuring exciting adventures such as they themselves might have.

All Lincoln Filene Center experiences with respect to "colors" in textbooks confirm these findings. The fact of the matter is that it is the emotions, the interactions, the plot, and the realities which turn young people on and stimulate discussions of sameness and difference, not color per se. Yet thousands of school systems will accept the thesis that textbooks "integrated" by color will make a difference, and that this is all that is needed. Perhaps McLuhan is not totally correct. Perhaps it *is* the message and not the medium.

Two other widely heralded "improvements" in instructional materials in the area of intergroup relations are units on such themes as black history or urban life, and a much stronger emphasis on black heroes in the course of American history. Cuban questions whether history is the best vehicle for capturing the meaning of the Negro experience, and he also makes the following observations with respect to special units on black history and other themes:

> Although some of these (units) emphasize original sources combined with different teaching strategies, they present problems. They require additional funds, since their material is supplementary; teachers need careful preparation to use these materials effectively; and their inherently segregated treatment of race raises many questions. (*Harvard Educational Review,* op. cit., p. 615)

This leading authority on intergroup relations education adds another criticism with respect to special units, one which relates to our critique on the issue of teacher preparation.

> An even more serious consideration confronting all supplementary materials is the large attitudinal burden that ethnic history carries. In other words, what everyone is after--once distortions and omissions are corrected--is a change of attitudes, based on information. Yet without any systematic effort to modify teachers' perceptions and educate them in the use of racial-content materials, it is fraudulent to think that students will shift their attitudes--much less change their behavior--simply on the basis of reading something, "discussing" it, and spilling out the facts on a test. Such deception continues, nourished by publisher blurbs and liberal rhetoric. (Cuban, ibid., p. 616--underlining by the Lincoln Filene Center.)

Education advancing democratic human relations must be deeply concerned with attitudes, values, emotions, and behavioral orientations as we have noted many times. It is our contention, in strongly agreeing with Cuban, that present injections of materials and units on many dimensions of racial and cultural diversity in the United States may offer to students some cognitive accretion on this diversity. Without effective teaching and educational processes which emphasize efforts toward attitudinal change, however, such materials and units will not make a marked difference in advancing students toward desirable objectives for intergroup relations education.

Furthermore, it is the Center's experience that a four-week unit on black history sandwiched in the curriculum in October or January will have little attitudinal impact on students and also will not be remembered to any great extent in March or May. A short and intense stress on black history and then a return to the Battle of Gettysburg may delude some teachers and administrators into thinking that they have met their "obligations" in intergroup relations education; however, little really will have been accomplished. In a number of fifth-grade classrooms, we have discussed the meaning of ghetto in October or November and have found that without continued emphasis on inner-city problems and race relations, students won't even remember what "ghetto" means in April. This suggests that time units on intergroup relations or diversity in America are not effective responses to the need for qualitative and sensitive education in this area.

What about laying emphasis on outstanding blacks in the course of American history? Again, such stress is an improvement, but not a significant one. The reader should examine Professor Jean D. Grambs's review of the book by Dharathula H. Millender, Crispus Attucks, Boy of Valor (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1965) in Harvard Educational Review, op. cit. Crispus Attucks, a black, was the first to fall in the Boston Massacre in

1770. Grambs is a critic of overemphasis of certain black heroes and notes that "works of this kind assign to history a dubious name in education and to the Negro an equally dubious role in American life." (Ibid., p. 605) She adds that "at a time when authentic history is more essential than ever, we must refrain from creating nonhistory." (Ibid., p. 611)

Education U. S. A. reports that Grambs's colleague at the University of Maryland, Professor Louis R. Harlan, has sounded "a warning against making black history a 'cherry tree' history of sugar-coated success stories." He asked "what good it will do to trade old stereotypes for new ones. '. . . 100 pages of cotton candy about Jackie Robinson' does not teach the realities ghetto students need to cope with the world. . . . Instead, it implies that if students do not fight their way out of the ghetto, it is their own fault. He also cautioned against propagandistic black history which promotes racial nationalism. . . ." (Address before the National Council for the Social Studies and cited in Education U. S. A., December 9, 1968) On this theme, Miss Black notes that "The problem . . . of reaching inner-city children, more than half of whom are Negro and most of whom come from depressed homes, is not solved just by integrating texts and recognizing the Negro contribution to American history." (The American Schoolbook, op. cit., p. 124)

This is our central point and basic criticism. So many educators in America assume that the "improvements" in instructional materials will do the entire job of substantially uplifting intergroup relations education in this nation. Our point is that they will make some small progress, but that by themselves, "improved" instructional materials cannot possibly advance students toward significant educational objectives. Furthermore, "improved" materials must be intimately associated with other dimensions of the progress of education, especially teachers and teaching, in order to help the student of today to become an effective democratic citizen tomorrow.

f. The usual structure and content of the elementary school curriculum do not lend themselves to advancing democratic human relations through education.

### Supportive Research and Evidence

The curriculum of the elementary school encompasses many things, but it deals largely with the structuring of bodies of knowledge to be learned by students and the content or subject matter of those bodies of knowledge. It is our finding that most elementary school curricula are tightly structured, have disjointed sequences of skills, are not relevant to the life of the student, permit few opportunities for student participation in the teaching-learning process, focus upon the cognitive development of the child, and do not adequately treat the affective domain, or values, feelings, attitudes, and emotions. Such curricula run counter to the flexibility, progressive development of skills, treatment of realities, participatory activities, and the inclusion of values and attitudes which we feel are fundamental to advancing students toward democratic intergroup relations.

Mario D. Fantini and Gerald Weinstein's book, The Disadvantaged: Challenge to Education (New York: Harper & Row, 1968) treats these problems in detail and with considerable sensitivity and perception. It appraises the standard or orthodox curriculum and contains many excellent suggestions for moving that curriculum toward one which will genuinely respond to contemporary educational needs. Although Fantini and Weinstein are largely concerned with disadvantaged students, their pinpointing of curriculum shortcomings is definitely relevant to elementary school education in general. We shall return to their recommendations later. Suffice it to say for the present that the structure of most elementary school curricula is inadequate, and this critique naturally coalesces with our other criticisms of the process of education in elementary schools.

With respect to content or subject matter, we find very little that deals directly with intergroup relations, why people are different, the history of minority groups in American life, urban problems, and other areas of knowledge which are so important to intergroup relations education. It is our impression, furthermore, that the treatment of reading, language, writing, and computation skills is inadequate, especially for the disadvantaged. The young child must gain from elementary school education a facility in handling these skills. They are basic to the cognitive development of the child and to the child's capacity to engage effectively in any kind of interaction with other people, and naturally, they are vital to furthering positive self-concept. This is a general observation and criticism, but one which is intimately associated with the marked gaps in curriculum content in the area of intergroup relations.

g. School administrators must also bear the guilt for not improving education in intergroup relations if they assume that "integrated" instructional materials are making a significant contribution to the cause; if they do not lend support to teachers who in various ways seek to better the situation; if they let culturally biased IQ tests serve as the main basis for determining intelligence; if they do not permit flexibility in scheduling and curriculum reorganization; and if they do not seize opportunities for many kinds of integrated learning situations among students.

## Supportive Research and Evidence

Many of the points in this critique are closely associated with our commentary above. The main point we are submitting here is that school administrators--superintendents, principals, curriculum supervisors, and others in administrative positions--have a key responsibility for advancing democratic intergroup relations education in the schools. Without support from administrators, efforts to make a genuine improvement in intergroup relations can hardly succeed.

We find that many administrators assume that "integrated" instructional materials are all that is required to meet the needs for improved intergroup relations education. Because we strongly feel that the "improved" materials we have reviewed above are not meeting these needs, we can hardly condone extensive purchases of these materials, and decisions to make those purchases are those of administrators for the most part.

We find that many sensitive and well-educated teachers are seeking to improve intergroup relations in many ways in their classes. If, however, they do not have administrative support and encouragement, their efforts will be greatly limited. But support for classroom work and dedication is not enough. Administrators have not been as generous as they might to support inservice programs for teachers, the use of teacher-leaders to train other teachers in school systems, sabbatical leaves, and other programs and activities to improve intergroup relations education in the school. It is not enough, therefore, to send one or two teachers from a school or a school system to an inservice program dealing with intergroup relations and then assume that the system has met its obligations. The teacher who has profited from such a program may do a much better job in intergroup relations in her class, but what about other teachers (and students) in that school or system? Where is the multiplier effect? Only administrators can make the decisions and provide opportunities for the multiplier effect in the school or system, and it is our finding that very little is done in this respect. Unless we have a constantly expanding pattern of inservice education within the school and system, which uses outstanding teachers who have benefited from inservice programs outside of the school and system, we will not be able to reach the critical mass of American teachers.

Administrators who have any responsibility for permitting culturally biased IQ tests to serve as the main basis for determining the intelligence of children are ignoring much research and many findings concerning the damage such tests do to disadvantaged children. Some relevant research on this point follows. Benjamin Bloom, Stability and Change in Human Characteristics (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964); Kenneth Clark, "Educational Stimulation of Racially Disadvantaged Children," in A. Harry Passow's Education in Depressed Areas (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963); Allison Davis, "Cultural Factors in Remediation," Educational Horizons, Summer, 1965); and John Fischer, "Race and Reconciliation: The Role of the School," op cit. We have noted earlier that intelligence may mean many things, and that for many reasons different people respond to testing of "intelligence" in different ways. It is not the objective of this study to explore the problem of appraising the intelligence of young people; nevertheless, we are critical of appraisals of "intelligence" based on tests and testing procedures which do not take account of the cultural and environmental differences among children.

Our observation about inflexible curricula and classroom situations must be associated with criticisms of administrators who are barriers to open learning environments for children. Effective intergroup relations education, in our opinion, requires a curriculum and class schedule with considerable flexibility, especially for the introduction of supplements to the regular curriculum and for time in the school day to consider some basic issues in the realm of intergroup relations. Pleasant classrooms, provisions for simulation procedures and group discussions among students, and adequate instructional materials and resources for students are essential. Finally, we would be critical of administrators who do little or nothing to provide for integrated learning situations for students. We have noted above that we are basically concerned in this study with the process of education; however, where possible, administrators should seek opportunities to bring children from all groups and backgrounds into contact with each other. We shall leave the matter of redrawing school district lines and bussing students to others. We are only suggesting that in many communities, young people from different groups can be brought together in specific class projects, or in cocurricular or extracurricular activities. Too many educational administrators have not taken advantage of opportunities which could help young people understand and appreciate others who are different.

We wish to repeat the point that our critiques are intended only for those people and educational processes which fall substantially short of what might be accomplished in schools to advance students toward the objectives which we hope to achieve through intergroup relations education. We are quite aware of the many fine things some teachers, administrators, and others are doing to improve this process. But unless we identify where people and processes are not advancing these objectives, we are unable to make specific recommendations for improving the educational process.

3. Research and development now present some specific and tested approaches for advancing democratic intergroup relations among young people through educational processes in our elementary schools.

The "approaches" we are discussing in this segment of Part B, Section I, of this study are, in effect, recommendations to meet the criticisms and needs set forth in segment 2 above. Many of these recommendations or approaches are related to the Lincoln Filene Center's Intergroup Relations Curriculum which is presented in Section II of this study. The Center has sought to translate research findings and educational needs into a curriculum for the elementary schools which can demonstrably advance students toward desirable objectives for education in intergroup relations.

a. There is a distinct need for specific behavioral objectives for education in intergroup relations. The objectives set forth below are those of the Lincoln Filene Center's Intergroup Relations Curriculum. Undoubtedly there are other significant objectives which could be added to this list. The following are attainable through educational processes, however; they represent important guidelines for educators who seek to advance students toward specific goals and can serve as a basis for evaluating the effectiveness and the relevance of education in intergroup relations. We recommend the following behavioral objectives in intergroup relations education for elementary (and all) students:

i. To advance the child's positive self-concept.

ii. To help the child to reduce stereotypic and prejudicial thinking and overt discrimination with respect to all kinds of groupings of human beings.

iii. To assist the child in realizing that there are many differences among people within groupings or categories of people based on sex, age, race, ethnic classification, national origin, profession or employment, region (e.g., "Southerner," "New Englander"), and level of education.

iv. To give the child a very realistic understanding of the past and the present, including the many contributions to the development of America by people from a wide variety of groupings and nations.

v. To encourage the child to be an active participant in the teaching-learning process in the school.

vi. To suggest ways by which all individuals may contribute toward bringing the realities of the democratic civic culture closer to its ideals.

Although we feel that these objectives speak for themselves, a few comments may be in order. It is essential to education in any area that the student have a positive self-concept and self-respect. It is particularly important in intergroup relations, however, that a child see himself as an individual who is important, interesting and meaningful to others, and capable of learning--and all of this irrespective of any group identification or tag.

We seek to help young people not to stereotype others or to prejudge and misjudge either groups or members of any specific group. This, it is hoped, will lead to a reduction in overt discriminatory behavior. We would also hope that laws and norms which make it illegal to discriminate against someone or some group would also, in the long run, help people to eliminate covert behavioral patterns based on stereotypes or prejudice.

Closely associated with objective ii is an effort to help children realize the great diversity of behaviors among people belonging to any specific group or category. This includes not only groups based on national origin, race, ethnic identity and so on but also "politicians," "police," and even "teachers"!

A realistic acquaintance with the American past and present is essential to understanding how the civic culture in the United States developed and how many kinds of people and groups contributed to the evolution of democratic ways of life and patterns of governing in the nation. This objective will help young people to take pride in the contributions of people from their group to the American achievement and thus, we trust, will advance a positive "group" concept as well as a positive self-concept. In many ways, therefore, "self" and "group" concepts are intertwined, in both negative and positive terms. Certainly the Black Power movement has done much to give the American black person pride in being black, and consequently a more positive image of himself. Because in the past we have not emphasized through the process of education the contributions of many different kinds of people and groups to the American nation, we unconsciously or consciously have contributed to negative patterns of group concept and therefore self-concept. The objective discussed above, if translated into effective educational processes, can not only advance group concept and self-concept of those in minority groups but also can help all others to realize and respect the diverse nature of the American past and present.

Objectives v and vi are fairly obvious. They are related to self-concept, and they are essential to helping young people engage in processes of discovery, inquiry, and change. We feel that these objectives are a significant response to Professor Tumin's statement on pages 23 and 24 above.

As we discuss approaches and recommendations for improving the advancement of students toward desirable educational objectives, we are vitally involved with ends and means. All of the approaches and recommendations we submit with respect to teachers, students, teaching-learning processes, instructional materials, curriculum, and school administration are designed to further the objectives above.

b. With respect to teachers, we recommend:

   i. More effective teaching and specific courses in intergroup relations in the preservice education of teachers going into elementary school education.

   ii. Extensive inservice education in intergroup relations, with opportunities for modified forms of sensitivity training; study of some basic writings in the field; depth exposure to and teaching of specific intergroup relations curricula; group discussions of experiences in classroom teaching of such curricula; opportunities to examine many kinds of instructional resources (for students and teachers) in intergroup relations; and evaluation of such inservice programs so that they can constantly be improved.

These recommendations are self-evident. It is largely up to those having responsibilities for preservice and inservice education to implement them. Our recommendations with respect to inservice education are based largely upon our own experiences in this area, which are set forth in Section

III of this study. We have had many and varied experiences in "sensitivity training" over a period of years. We have not been happy with results of "T Group" training. Nevertheless, we do feel strongly that inservice education of teachers in this area must focus on open discussions by teachers of how they feel about themselves and others who are different, probing prejudices and appraising the damage which prejudgments and misjudgments held by teachers about others can do to children. "Know thyself" and "to thyself be true" are fundamental precepts. Nathan Wright, Jr., notes that "two basic attributes are necessary for good teaching: understanding of oneself and knowledge and love of one's subject." (Let's Work Together, op. cit., p. 62)

". . . the effort to recognize and then reduce bias is one of the noblest exercises of the human mind." (Dean Franklin L. Ford, "To Live with Complexity," Harvard Today, Autumn, 1968, p. 12) Whitney M. Young points out that "the thing that impresses a black person most is a white person who acknowledges that he does have prejudices. When they tell you some of their best friends are black or when they tell you they know exactly how the black feels, they've got a long way to go." (The New York Times, October 6, 1968) We know that teachers can become more "aware" in inservice programs, and we strongly recommend that examination of self and one's hang-ups must precede any meaningful teaching about intergroup relations in the classroom.

iii. A clear and definite understanding by teachers that all physically and mentally healthy children can learn and learn well irrespective of their inclusion in any racial, religious, ethnic, or national-origin category.

iv. That teachers view their students as distinct and unique individuals and that the students receive as much individual attention from the teacher as is humanly possible.

v. That the teaching by the teacher maximize possibilities for students to participate with him or her in the teaching-learning process; that it be dramatic and articulate; that it demonstrate compassion for the disadvantaged; and that it genuinely reflect the vital importance of the role of the teacher himself or herself in

advancing democratic intergroup relations
in the United States.

Most of these recommendations are closely associated with those we submit concerning students and the teaching-learning process. We note, however, that all children can learn, providing the teacher respects students and expects them to succeed. (See Pygmalion in the Classroom and "Are Children Born Unequal?" op. cit.) The reader should also review the research and findings we have submitted above on these matters and the points we make below with respect to students and teaching-learning processes. We repeat again the necessity for teachers to acquire skills for handling intergroup relations in the classroom, whether this be through preservice or inservice education or by sheer determination on the part of the teacher that he or she can and will do a better job in this area. With respect to skills, we suggest the following publication: Secondary Schools Curriculum Guide: Teaching About Minorities in Classroom Situations (New York: Bureau of Curriculum Development, Board of Education of the City of New York, 1968). This guide contains many suggestions to teachers for dealing with problem situations in the classroom, especially when students make pointed, bigoted statements concerning minority groups ("My father says such and such"). Suggested responses for teachers are set forth in detail. The monograph also contains background material on all kinds of groups, curriculum guides, activities and materials, evaluation procedures, and a bibliography of instructional resources. Although labeled for "secondary schools," the monograph is eminently usable at the elementary level.

We cannot stress too strongly the need for as much individualized instruction and concern for each child as possible (see below). Finally, we would hope that each teacher would comprehend his or her vital importance in advancing intergroup relations in the United States through education. We feel very strongly that it is the teacher and teaching which can and must make the real difference and that emphasis on this critical role of the teacher will do much to further the teacher's own positive self-concept.

c. With respect to students, we would hope that they would be considered as delightful human beings; capable of learning and learning well irrespective of inclusion in any racial, religious, ethnic, or national-origin category; naturally having positive and negative biases and prejudices about all kinds of people and groups; but having the potential to be reached through the teaching-learning process so

as substantially to reduce such negative biases
and prejudices.

We believe that the research cited above with respect to students (pages 27-30) supports the point that it is not the group identity of the student which dictates how or what he can learn, but the individual student himself. Again, we cite Pygmalion in the Classroom, op. cit., and many other research studies on motivation and motivating. See also the report of research at the Fernald School at the University of California, Los Angeles, which points out that anxiety among the disadvantaged rather than lack of concern, is the cause of low motivation. The Fernald School provided children with hope for success which apparently resulted in less anxiety and in increased effort (Education, U. S. A., September 9, 1968). Nathan Wright, Jr., only asks, "expect the best." (Let's Work Together, op. cit., p. 67) See also Arthur R. Jensen, "Social Class, Race and Genetics: Implications for Education," American Educational Research Journal, January, 1968; R. Murray Thomas, Social Differences in the Classroom, op. cit.; and Raymond B. Cattell and H. John Butcher, The Prediction of Achievement and Creativity, op. cit. Schools are for children, and each child can experience the joy of learning and the importance of democratic human relations if we as educators will only give them this opportunity. The Lincoln Filene Center's Intergroup Relations Curriculum is based on this premise.

d. With respect to the teaching-learning process, we recommend:

   i. That the process be oriented toward advancing students to specific goals or objectives for intergroup relations education.

   ii. That the realities of life in America be explored in the classroom and that the community be used as a classroom itself.

   iii. That students fully participate in the classroom teaching-learning process.

   iv. That the emotions, sensitivities, confrontations, testing, probing, challenging, and other affective interactions associated with relations among all kinds of different human beings be made a significant part of the teaching-learning process.

v. That the process of intergroup relations education not be neglected in the various kinds of classrooms which are basically homogeneous in terms of race, national origin, ethnic categories, or religion, so that students in a homogeneous situation may learn about other categories of human beings.

These recommendations are incorporated in the Lincoln Filene Center's Intergroup Relations Curriculum and in its inservice program for elementary school teachers. Clearly these recommendations are intertwined with those mentioned above. We also draw from our previous studies and those of others to support these recommendations. We and others have found that an effective curriculum in intergroup relations:

1. Accepts the child as he is and provides recognition of his acceptance of every other child.
2. Leads to an understanding on the part of the child of the reasons why different people live as they do.
3. Fosters interaction among representatives of different groups, with each representative being given equal status.
4. Makes it possible for each child to achieve success, but not at the expense of others.

See Celia Stendler and William Martin, Intergroup Education in Kindergarten-Primary Grades (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953, pp. 22-26). See also Amidon and Hough, Interaction Analysis: Theory, Research and Application, op. cit.; Bessell and Palomares, Methods in Human Development, op. cit.; and Harris and Morrison, The Craft Project, op. cit.

We have cited the critical importance of having students participate in the teaching-learning process, especially in intergroup relations education where discovery and inquiry--and not exhortation--are vital to learning about sameness and difference among human beings. We have also discussed in detail the need for very open and frank classroom discussion about such sameness and difference and need not repeat these points here. We feel strongly that any program or curriculum in intergroup relations education cannot be successful without student engagement in the teaching-learning process and without confrontations and interactions which involve extensive exploration of samenesses and differences of all kinds. Clawson, along with many others, reports that "knowledge about people does not necessarily assure positive feelings about them."(A Study of Attitudes of Prejudice Against Negroes in an All-White Community, op. cit., p. 123) His research emphasizes the affective domain, or feeling, rather than sole reliance on the cognitive domain, or knowledge, in intergroup relations education. It is feelings and sensitivities, then, that are crucial to effective teaching and learning about intergroup relations.

We also repeat our emphasis on linking ideals with realities, and vice versa, in the teaching-learning process. Nathan Wright, Jr., notes that "the kind of reality--or unreality--that the teacher creates in the classroom is perhaps the greatest single social instrument for shaping the future character of the nation." (op. cit., p. 63) In Teacher (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1963), Sylvia Ashton-Warner tells of her experiences in developing a successful curriculum for Maori children in New Zealand, a curriculum based on the realities of these children's lives. She declares that the first words and books reaching children "must be made out of the stuff of the child itself. I reach a hand into the mind of the child, bring out a handful of the stuff I find there and use that as our first working material, /whether/ it is good or bad stuff, violent or placid stuff, colored or dun."(pp. 33-34)

What is the relationship between the realities experienced by all kinds of young people and the ideals of the democratic society? Young people do have wishes, fantasies, and ideals, and they are constantly exposed to the ideals of the democratic doctrine in the classroom. Relevant and procedural links must be a part of the teaching-learning process so that young people can connect their real life to ideals and examine how the realities can be moved closer to ideals. Hess stresses this point repeatedly in his discussions of political socialization. (See Harvard Educational Review, op. cit.) The Lincoln Filene Center's Curriculum brings a process approach of political science to such themes as ideal, myth, and reality. It contains many learning activities for student participation in the teaching-learning process and also for helping students to explore channels for effective action and change in many kinds of societal institutions. See also John P. De Cecco (ed.), Human Learning in the School (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1967).

We need much more research on how the deprived inner-city or rural child views the reality of his life and what can be done through educational processes to provide significant links between that child's own ideals, democratic ideals and his often grim living environment. We would hardly claim that educational processes can bring about vast changes in the cognitive and affective growth of young people whose living and family conditions are afflicted with extensive deprivation. Although we feel that curricula such as the one contained in this study can make some difference, our society certainly must apply itself to changing the tragic living environments of many of our citizens before it can expect educational processes to help make ideals attainable. This raises all kinds of questions about community control and decentralization of schools which are matters not within the province of this study. Marie Syrkin explores these problems in perceptive detail in her article,"Don't Flunk the Middle-Class Teacher."(The New York Times Magazine, December 15, 1968, p. 15)

Finally, there is the matter of bringing the realities of the disadvantaged into the all-white classroom. Again we refer the reader to the Center's Curriculum presented in Section II of this study. See also the following: "How to Integrate Your District's Curriculum," School Management, August, 1968,pp. 20 ff.; and Howard Kirschenbaum, "Teaching the Black Experience," in Educators Guide to Media and Methods, October, 1968, pp. 28 ff. Both of these studies contain many excellent learning activities along with bibliographic and resource suggestions. Jean D. Grambs's superb book, Intergroup Education: Methods and Materials, op. cit., is also "required reading."

e. With respect to instructional materials, we feel that books with integrated pictures and stories and units devoted to black history or some other specific group are an improvement over instructional materials used before the 1960's, but that, nevertheless, some very innovative designs and approaches to instructional resources should also be used in the classroom. Specifically, we recommend that students have ample opportunity to develop and even write their own materials or portfolios by drawing from their experiences, observations, magazines, newspapers, and other sources. These portfolios should be an integral part of an intergroup relations curriculum and should reflect inductive teaching and discovery and inquiry by the student. Textbook publishers should also make significant contributions by focusing their materials more on inductive processes, multimedia, emotions, and realities of life in our society, and a balanced presentation of man and society in the United States, yesterday and today.

The Kerner Report calls for the "recognition of the history, culture, and contribution of minority groups to American civilization in the textbooks and curricula of all schools" (op. cit., p. 447). We hold, however, that while publishers are providing textbooks, readers, and other instructional resources which more adequately reflect the realities of the American past and present, such additions to the curriculum are not enough. Larry Cuban points out why in Harvard Educational Review, op. cit., p. 611 ff., and we believe we have stressed this point sufficiently earlier in this study. We naturally hope that publishers will do much more than they have done in this respect and, in particular, will provide materials which are based upon inductive teaching and discovery and inquiry by students. Thus we recommend that instructional materials and resources be produced which reflect much of the research and supportive findings submitted in this study regarding materials and educational processes.

The Curriculum presented in Section II of this study contains materials and learning activities for students. We stress, however, a key role for students and teachers in adding collections of pictures and writings from many sources to the basic Curriculum materials. We suggest the development of student portfolios or notebooks which contain what students write, design, and collect themselves and also their observations, discoveries, and responses to the pattern of inductive teaching fundamental to the Curriculum. In other words, we recommend the development of instructional materials based upon a core curriculum and a methodology for inductive teaching and for discovery and inquiry by students. Commercially produced and published materials are definitely needed; however, they cannot adequately respond to the many needs of an effective intergroup relations program in the schools. Student participation in materials development joins student participation in the teaching-learning process. This permits the kinds of flexibility and creativity which are fundamental to any program in this area. Excellent suggestions for student development of instructional materials may be found in John E. Morlan's Preparation of Inexpensive Teaching Materials (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1963). For listings of many kinds of materials for classroom use in intergroup relations education, we refer the reader to the articles in School Management and Educators Guide to Media and Methods, op. cit., as well as to the catalogue of instructional resources set forth in Part F, Section II, of this study.

f. We recommend that the structure and content of the curriculum be organized to meet our recommendations with respect to teachers and teaching, students and learning, the teaching-learning process, and instructional materials. This includes flexibility in scheduling (especially to give time for teacher interactions); subject matter which will better enable

> teachers to meet their obligations in intergroup relations education; and other recommendations which many experts have submitted with respect to curriculum.

Our basic recommendation is that the structure and content of the school's curriculum take into consideration our recommendations set forth above. With respect to structure, we urge educators to include education in intergroup relations at all grade levels (one through six). With respect to content, we feel that educational inputs dealing with intergroup relations should coalesce primarily with the social studies program of the school, although all subject areas offer many possibilities for bringing intergroup relations themes and concepts into the educational process.

As the most important single study on curriculum, we recommend Fantini and Weinstein, The Disadvantaged: Challenge to Education, op. cit. This important work is as valid and useful for the "advantaged" as for the disadvantaged. Our point about flexibility in scheduling requires no additional comment. We would stress, however, the need for time in the school day for teachers who are introducing new programs into the curriculum to discuss their mutual problems, successes, and failures.

With respect to subject matter, we have made many recommendations above, and the Center's Curriculum, set forth in Section II of this study, takes up the roles of various disciplines in intergroup relations education. It is our firm position that history is not and should not be the only vehicle for bringing balance and realities into the curriculum. All the social sciences can make significant contributions. For a brilliant study on the relationship of the social or behavioral sciences to education, see Francis A. J. Ianni, Culture, System, and Behavior: The Behavioral Sciences and Education (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1967). Dr. Ianni strongly supports such process approaches in the social sciences as are reflected throughout the Center's Curriculum.

Our principal recommendation with respect to curriculum is that education in intergroup relations should not be walled off or inserted in segments through specific readings or time units, but that it should coalesce naturally with the social studies curriculum, grades one through six. This takes us back to structure and content.

We have criticized above the presentation of a four-week unit on black history in October when black history is neglected the rest of the school year. We oppose overstressing certain obvious black heroes and forgetting many other black contributions to the United States, past and present. We feel that including people in various colors in social studies texts does very little if figures are not colored in other texts. And so on. But our central criticism was that most of the "improved" instructional materials make relatively little difference in advancing students toward our objectives if realities, feelings, discoveries, processes of inquiry, and so on are not in the curriculum.

We therefore recommend that supplementary procedures bring relevant and effective intergroup relations education into the social studies program in grades one through six, and from September through the end of the school year in the spring. This is not to say, again, that social studies is the only vehicle and it is not to say that the social studies program, in grades one through six and from September through June, should focus only on intergroup relations. We do recommend that inductive teaching, learning activities, units spanning considerable time, and other dimensions of a relevant intergroup relations curriculum be brought into the social studies program naturally and regularly. We feel that the Curriculum we present in Section II of this study is a definite step in responding to this recommendation.

> g. We recommend that administrators acquaint themselves with desirable goals for intergroup relations education and lend every possible support to teachers and educational processes designed to advance students toward those goals. This includes support of visitations and integrated learning situations among all kinds of students. Administrators should participate with teachers in inservice programs, especially in modified sensitivity-training processes, so that they may become thoroughly familiar with the needed processes and procedures designed to improve intergroup relations in the schools.

Relevant education in intergroup relations definitely requires support from educational administrators, especially support of teachers' efforts to introduce new programs and to bring about curriculum change. We have noted above the urgent need for administrative support of inservice programs in intergroup relations for teachers. Of course, this kind of support must come from the community as well. Wright states that "state and local government must be encouraged by their citizens to promote continual inservice training for teachers to help them understand themselves better." (Let's Work Together, op. cit., pp. 62, 63) Many others, such as Boyer and Walsh ("Are Children Born Unequal?" op. cit.), plead for cooperation among school administrators and citizens in the community to improve education in intergroup relations.

Still, there is much that superintendents, principals, and curriculum supervisors can do, as we suggested in our critique regarding administrators above. In effect, all of our recommendations apply to administrators, and that is especially true of the proposal that administrators participate with teachers from their schools in any kind of inservice sensitivity orientation related to intergroup relations. Many administrators have participated in such programs at the Lincoln Filene Center. They benefited from it and, because of their participation in our seminars, they are better able to advance and support intergroup relations educational programs in their schools.

We also recommend that administrators seize opportunities to promote integrated learning experiences among students from all kinds of classrooms. This is especially important for school systems which are basically homogeneous in the grouping of their students. Cocurricular and extracurricular programs and visitations among students from different kinds of schools are strongly recommended. The journal, Integrated Education, edited by Meyer Weinberg, and published bimonthly by Integrated Education Associates, 343 South Dearborn Street, Chicago, has many articles and reports on studies and programs in this area. Because it is Right (Boston: Massachusetts Department of Education, 1965) is an excellent study of integrated education.

The propositions, critiques, and recommendations set forth above have resulted from the years the Lincoln Filene Center has devoted to research and development in intergroup relations education and from the many fine studies and programs in this vital field. In addition to the citations set forth above, we have drawn upon a number of other studies and collections of research findings in the research and developmental phases of the Curriculum. It may be of some value to the reader to examine other sources of authority for the propositions, critiques, and recommendations submitted in this report. Some of the principal works on which we have relied are as follows:

Beauchamp, Mary, Human Relations in Teaching: The Dynamics of Helping Children Grow. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955

Berelson, Bernard, and Gary A. Steiner, Human Behavior: An Inventory of Scientific Findings. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1964

Bettelheim, Bruno, and Morris Janowitz, Social Change and Prejudice. London: The Free Press of Glencoe-Collier (Macmillan), Ltd., 1964

Bower, Eli M., and William G. Hollister, Behavioral Science: Frontiers in Education. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1967

Clark, Kenneth B., "Problems of Social Power and Social Change: A Relevant Social Psychology," The Journal of Social Issues, July, 1965, p. 4

Daedalus (Journal of The American Academy of Arts and Sciences): "The Negro American" - 1, Fall, 1965; "The Negro American" - 2, Winter, 1966; and "Color and Race" - Spring, 1967. In the latter, see in particular, C. Eric Lincoln's paper, 'Color and Group Identity in the United States.'

Dreeben, Robert, "The Contribution of Schooling to the Learning of Norms," Harvard Educational Review, Spring, 1967, p. 211

Educator's Complete Eric Handbook. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967 (This is phase one of the ERIC or Educational Resources Clearing House reporting on projects, programs, and abstracts of research in many areas of education, including the disadvantaged, civil rights, etc.)

Gittler, Joseph, and William E. Vickery, "Intergroup Relations and the Citizen" in Franklin Patterson (ed.), Citizenship and a Free Society: Education for the Future. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 30th Yearbook, 1960, Chapters 8 and 9.

"Growth, Development, and Learning," Special edition of Review of Educational Research. American Educational Research Association, December, 1967

Haskew, Laurence D., and Jonathon C. McLendon (eds.), This Is Teaching. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman & Company, 1968, 3rd edition

Hoffman, Martin L. and Lois W. (eds.), Review of Child Development Research. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1964

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Educational Researcher. Official Newsletter of the American Educational Research Association

Integrated Education. A bimonthly publication edited by Meyer Weinberg and published by Integrated Education Associates, 343 S. Dearborn Street, Chicago, Illinois, 60604

IRCD Bulletin. Publication of the ERIC Information Retrieval Center on Disadvantaged Youth. Ferkauf Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences, Yeshiva University, 55 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York, 10003

Poverty and Human Resources Abstracts. Bimonthly publication of the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations. The University of Michigan and Wayne State University, Ann Arbor, Michigan

Recent Publications in the Social and Behavioral Sciences. The American Behavioral Scientist (Division of Sage Publications), Beverly Hills, California

Research Relating to Children. Bulletins published by the Clearinghouse for Research in Child Life, Children's Bureau, Welfare Administration, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C.

Research in Education. Monthly publication of the Educational Resources Information Center and related ERIC clearinghouses of the United States Office of Education. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1966-1968

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The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science. N. F. L. Institute of Applied Behavioral Science, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., 20036

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The Journal of Social Issues. Quarterly publication of The Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, a division of the American Psychological Association, Ferkauf Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences, Yeshiva University, 55 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York, 10003

## I - C

## The Intergroup Relations Curriculum: Development, Results, and Conclusions

### 1. Development of the Curriculum

This curriculum improvement project was a continuation of previous research and development by the Lincoln Filene Center on instructional materials and teaching strategies for education in intergroup relations. Earlier reports from the Center to the United States Office of Education cited in Part A of Section I have described in some detail the developmental phases of the Center's curriculum improvement project. We began with the necessary research and, of course, have continued to feed research findings into our development. From the fall of 1965 through the spring of 1967, working parties at the primary and intermediate levels of elementary school education met at the Center to translate research in intergroup education into pilot units for use in the schools. Center staff and clinical teaching consultants used these units in a number of different kinds of schools in the academic years 1966-67 and 1967-68 as well as in the Lowell, Massachusetts, Title I project in the summer of 1967, and in an integrated program in Boston in the summer of 1968.

The phase of the project which is reported here dealt with basic modifications, refinements, and improvements of the instructional materials and teaching strategies contained in the Center's October, 1967, report to the Office of Education. The Center reached a very basic decision in addressing itself to this task. We felt that we should modify the materials in such a manner as to produce an intergroup relations curriculum which could be used at all grade levels, one through six, and not just at grade two or three and at grade five, which had been the structure of the materials as of the fall of 1967. Another decision with respect to modification, refinement, and improvement was to use the governing process structure as the overarching framework for the Curriculum and to relate to it the five methodological tools which had been developed earlier. The Curriculum as presented in Section II of this study contains these changes.

The developmental work was undertaken by staff members of the Lincoln Filene Center and also by clinical teaching consultants to the Center. Center staff continued to engage in research in intergroup relations education and to use this research in the process of modification and refinement. We also established a clinical classroom in Arlington, Massachusetts, in which Miss Anderson and Mrs. Esselstyn of the Center's staff worked with Miss Haveles in developing new materials, in teaching them to third-grade students, and in using the feedback to improve the learning activities. This process was expanded after the first inservice programs conducted by the Center in Arlington, Massachusetts, and Providence, Rhode Island, from January through May, 1968. The Center inservice programs, described in Section III of this study, not only had an obvious value in themselves but also gave us the opportunity to see how our Curriculum was used in the classrooms of many participating teachers. Thus we were constantly developing learning activities and units and also improving them on the basis of our own research and feedback from the many teachers using our Curriculum in their own classes. Much more writing, modification, and improvement took place during the summer and fall of 1968. Although the Center's inservice programs for Winchester and Cambridge (Massachusetts) teachers took place in the fall of 1968 after the end of the project (September 30, 1968), the findings, feedbacks, and improvements in the Curriculum which we gained from these programs are reflected in Section II of this study. We fully expect to continue this developmental pattern of basing our improvements of the Curriculum on the feedback from teachers who have taught and evaluated it after participating in Center inservice programs. Feedback material will, of course, be joined by the work of Center staff members and clinical teaching consultants in order to make the Curriculum as effective as possible.

### 2. Results of the Project

We feel that the results of the project are reflected primarily in the Intergroup Relations Curriculum as presented in Section II (Volume II) of this study. Added to this is the pattern of inservice programs for teachers which is described in Section III (Volume I).

### 3. Conclusions

The basic conclusion we have arrived at as we finish this curriculum improvement project is that the project's research, development, and other programs and activities in producing the Intergroup Relations Curriculum have made a significant contribution to advancing teaching and learning about democratic intergroup relations at the elementary school level. The validity of this conclusion, however, depends upon the Curriculum's being used on a wide basis. The recommendations we have submitted in Segment 3, Part B, of this Section of the study provide guidelines toward this end.

## I - D

## The Intergroup Relations Curriculum Project: Summary

The basic purpose of this part of Section I is to provide the reader with a short summary of the Project so that he may have an overview of the research, developmental work, and findings set forth in this broad study.

The Project in all of its phases since 1965 has sought to advance democratic intergroup relations through the process of education by developing a curriculum in intergroup relations for use at the elementary school level. Our research and developmental work focused initially upon instructional units at the primary and intermediate levels. It soon became clear, however, that our Curriculum could not be used on a broad basis in the United States without equal attention to the inservice education of teachers. We found that many teachers did not have adequate skills for inductive teaching and were apprehensive about sensitive and often emotional interactions among students and between students and the teacher in the classroom. Inductive teaching and all kinds of interactions dealing with the fundamental issues of intergroup relations were, and are, cardinal features of the Curriculum. Therefore in the phase of the Project which is the basis of this report, we concentrated on inservice education of elementary school teachers as well as on developing the Curriculum in such a way that it can be used at all grade levels in all kinds of elementary schools. In brief, the Curriculum which is contained in Volume II of this study presents an instructional program and appropriate teaching strategies for advancing democratic intergroup relations through the process of education in the elementary school.

The objectives of the Curriculum, and thus of the Project, are set forth on page 11 and again on pages 45 and 46 of this volume. Our basic objective is to help students not to prejudge, and thus to misjudge, people who are different from them, and "different" in many ways. We believe the process of education can make a distinct contribution toward this end. Our objectives are derived from a broad examination of the status of intergroup relations in the United States today and from our extensive critique on how the processes of education are not adequately meeting the challenge of advancing democratic intergroup relations. We thus arrived at a series of recommendations on improving such processes, recommendations which we feel we have translated effectively into the design and content of the Intergroup Relations Curriculum. Our propositions, critiques, and recommendations are set forth in Part B, Section I, of this study (pages 6-60 of this volume).

The research and developmental methods of this phase of the Project were different from the first two phases of the Project (March, 1965 - October, 1967). The former phases were largely concerned with basic research and the development of two pilot instructional units. The primary and intermediate units were pilot tested in a number of school systems and were found to be valid and effective approaches to improving democratic intergroup relations through education. As we noted above, however, an extensive program of inservice education for teachers was needed, as was the expansion of the Curriculum for use at all elementary grade levels. Therefore our methods for this phase of the Project (January, 1968 - October, 1968) concentrated on inservice programs and expansion of the Curriculum. It should be noted that the Lincoln Filene Center funded the Project between October, 1967, and January, 1968, and thus the actual work on this phase of the Project preceded the resumption of Federal funding in January, 1968. The Center has, of course, allocated considerable resources to the Project at all times when it was receiving Federal support.

The inservice programs in many school systems during this phase of the Project not only contributed substantially to equipping teachers to handle intergroup relations more effectively in the classroom but also gave the Center considerable feedback for expanding the Curriculum itself. Work by the Center's staff and clinical teaching consultants have drawn all this experience and many findings together to produce the Curriculum set forth in Volume II of this study.

What have been the results? In Volume III of this study, we indicate that, from our point of view, the results of our work have demonstrated the validity of our premises and projections. We are confident that the Curriculum can advance students toward desirable objectives for education in intergroup relations and that the Curriculum and our inservice program can do more than we had thought possible to help teachers to teach (and learn about) intergroup relations much more effectively than before. Approximately 350 teachers have participated in our intensive inservice programs, and more than 8,000 students have used the Curriculum. The latter figure is undoubtedly a low estimate. The evaluation of students and teachers has been positive in the vast majority of cases, although we still have a long way to go before we can evaluate the affective development of the teachers and students with any great degree of certainty.

The highlights of the Project from its beginning have been the delight with which teachers report the use of the Curriculum in their classrooms. The significance of this, in our opinion, is that we have a Curriculum which can genuinely improve the teaching and learning about democratic human relations, one which is a very substantial and significant improvement over all other curriculum processes we know of in the field of intergroup relations.

On pages 45 through 57 of this volume we have submitted a number of recommendations based on these findings. Our basic recommendation is that the Curriculum presented in Volume II of this study be used on a broad basis; that it be improved in many ways on the basis of classroom experience and additional research; and that considerable efforts and resources be allocated to preservice and inservice teacher education programs which are based upon the Curriculum and the findings submitted in this study. The Lincoln Filene Center has every expectation of continuing its research, developmental work, and educational programs for teachers in the quest for improving the Intergroup Relations Curriculum.

Finally, we are abundantly aware of the magnitude of the task before all who seek to advance democratic human relations through the process of education, or by any other means. We must, however, move forward with determined and vigorous optimism. This spirit is magnificently conveyed in the words of Martin Luther King, Jr., spoken shortly before his tragic assassination:

> And so I can still sing, although many have stopped singing it, "We shall overcome". We shall overcome because the arch of the moral universe is long, but it bends toward justice. We shall overcome because Carlyle is right, "No lie can live forever". We shall overcome because William Cullen Bryant is right, "Truth crushed to earth will rise again". We shall overcome because James Russell Lowell is right, "Truth forever on the scaffold, wrong forever on the throne, yet that scaffold sways a future". And so with this faith, we will be able to hew out of the mountain of despair a stone of hope. We will be able to transform the jangling discords of our nation into a beautiful symphony of brotherhood. This will be a great day. This will not be the day of the white man, it will not be the day of the black man, it will be the day of man as man.[6]

Volume I

## References

1 This conference was sponsored jointly by the United States Office of Education (Cooperative Research Project No. G-020) and by the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development (Grant No. 64203). A report of the conference was submitted to the two funding agencies in December, 1963, and was developed into a publication authored by Kvaraceus, Gibson, Patterson, Seasholes, and Grambs entitled Negro Self-Concept: Implications for School and Citizenship (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965).

2 In attendance were Messrs. Gibson, Kvaraceus, Seasholes, Holmes, and Miss Anderson of the Center staff as well as Professor Melvin Tumin of Princeton University and Professor Jean D. Grambs of the University of Maryland.

3 In addition to Center staff members, the following specialists attended the June, 1965, conference: Mr. Larry Cuban of the Cardozo Project, Washington, D. C.; Dr. William D. Davidson, Chief Resident, In-patient Psychiatry, Veterans Administration Hospital, Minneapolis; Dr. Robert A. Feldmesser, Director of Sociological Resources for Secondary Schools, Dartmouth College; Dr. Jean D. Grambs, University of Maryland; Dr. Robert D. Hess, Chairman, Committee on Human Development, University of Chicago; Dr. Solon T. Kimball, Teachers College, Columbia University; Dr. Peter New, Graduate School of Public Health, University of Pittsburgh; and Dr. Charles A. Pinderhughes, Chief of Psychiatry Service, Veterans Administration Hospital, Boston.

4 John S. Gibson and William C. Kvaraceus, The Development of Instructional Materials Pertaining to Race and Culture in America. Medford, Massachusetts: Trustees of Tufts College and the Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs (Cooperative Research Project No. H-199), 1966. 350 pp. See ED 010029, ERIC Document Reproduction Service.

5 These units were designed for the primary and intermediate levels. With the exception of the Indians and the Declaration units, they have been redesigned in this study for use in most of the grades in the elementary school.

6 The Journal of Social Issues, January, 1968, p. 12.

## III

## Implementation and Evaluation of the Intergroup Relations Curriculum

This section of the study is concerned with the inservice programs based upon the Curriculum, the evaluation problems and instruments, and the means by which the Center has, to date, disseminated the Curriculum's research, materials, teaching strategies, and other findings. Finally, we set forth some present and future plans for the Curriculum.

### III - A

### Teaching the Intergroup Relations Curriculum

In the Center's report to the United States Office of Education dated October, 1967 (Gibson, Race and Culture in American Life, op. cit.), considerable attention was focused on how the Center's staff and its clinical teaching consultants taught the emerging Curriculum in a number of schools in the Greater Boston area. A report on teaching the Curriculum in the summer, 1967, Title I Project in Lowell, Massachusetts, was also presented. At that time, the Office commissioned the Center to develop pilot materials at the primary and intermediate levels and to teach them on a provisional basis in different kinds of school systems. The feedback we received from these teaching experiences was carefully evaluated, and many promising designs for the emerging Curriculum were collected. The phase of the project covered in this present report dealt with expanding the total program, modifying some of its parts, adding audio-visual materials, and reaching more students through the training of elementary school teachers.

The Center feels that it has met its responsibilities for Curriculum expansion and refinement, and the changes and additions are reflected in the Curriculum reported in Section II of this study. Furthermore, we made a major revision by expanding the primary and intermediate sectors of the Curriculum into a program which can be used in all elementary school grades.

Clearly, however, the Center staff and the clinical teaching consultants could not continue to teach the Curriculum on such a limited basis. If the Curriculum was to have any genuine multiplier effect, it would be necessary to launch a number of inservice programs for teachers and equip them to teach the Curriculum. This has been one of our major activities in the period between the end of the last phase of the project (September, 1967) and the termination of the present phase (October, 1968). This part of Section III is, therefore, an accounting of the Center's various inservice programs for teachers in intergroup relations education.

Although the phase of the project covered by this report did not receive Federal funding until mid-January, 1968, the Center staff began earlier to organize procedures for its inservice programs. In the fall of 1967, Miss Anderson and Mrs. Esselstyn began working with Miss Alice H. Haveles, a fourth-grade teacher at the Stratton School in Arlington (Massachusetts) in teaching the Curriculum and, in particular, in developing new learning activities. Many of these activities are included in Section II of this study. Because the Center had planned to sponsor an inservice program for Arlington elementary school teachers in the spring of 1968, it seemed particularly appropriate that this initial inclass project with Miss Haveles should take place.

From January through December, 1968, the Center has sponsored six inservice programs based on the Curriculum. Approximately 350 elementary school teachers and administrators have attended these sessions, and they, in turn, teach approximately 8,500 elementary school students. Because the Center has stipulated that teachers in its inservice programs must teach the Curriculum to their students, it is reasonable to say that the Curriculum has reached, in one manner or another, about 8,000 students.

The Center has a fairly good idea of the successes and failures of its six inservice programs, and we report on this matter below. It would be ideal if we could know what did or did not happen to students as a result of this effort. A very small staff and inadequacies of evaluation programs and instruments make it virtually impossible to find out what impact the Curriculum had upon the students it reached. (See Part B of Section III.) We do have impressionistic feedback which is very positive, and judging from our evaluation of teaching the Curriculum in previous years, we have confidence that our efforts have met with some success. One of our major projections for 1969 is to put much more emphasis on student evaluation.

We turn, now, to an accounting of our six inservice programs. The first segment deals with inservice programs in Arlington, Massachusetts, and in Rhode Island from January through May, 1968, followed by an appraisal of our programs in Boston, Winchester, and Cambridge, Massachusetts, and our December institute for teachers from the nine northeastern states. Various appendices pertaining to these institutes are at the end of this part of Section III.

1. Inservice Programs, Spring, 1968

The Center conducted a fifteen-session institute for ali (170) elementary teachers and administrators of the Arlington, Massachusetts, school system from January through May, 1968, and a ten-session institute for 80 elementary school teachers and administrators from Rhode Island school systems from February through May, 1968. The Arlington institute was officially endorsed by the Arlington Public Schools, and the Rhode Island program was sponsored by the Rhode Island Department of Education. All Arlington teachers and administrators were required to attend their institute, but the Rhode Island group participated on a voluntary basis. The Arlington program was held at the Stratton School in that city, while the Rhode Island institute took place at the Flynn School, Providence.

The design of both institutes was basically the same. The Arlington participants met each Wednesday afternoon for an hour and a half, while the Rhode Island group met each Thursday afternoon for an hour and three quarters. The main objectives of the Center at both institutes were the following: to familiarize the participants with the Curriculum (purposes, organization, content, methodology, etc.); to encourage the participants to examine their own sensitivities and attitudes concerning people who are different from them; to demonstrate the necessity for teachers to use the inductive approach in teaching so that students may engage in discovery and inquiry while advancing toward the objectives of the Curriculum; and to acquaint the teachers with a variety of instructional resources which can be used effectively in the teaching and learning about intergroup relations.

All participants received a copy of the Curriculum report (Race and Culture in American Life). A pre-audit dealing with many kinds of questions was given. Introductory sessions conducted by Dr. Gibson touched upon the need for effective intergroup relations education in the schools, the background of the Curriculum, and a description of the Curriculum, with frequent references to Race and Culture. Films dealing with prejudice were shown (especially "Where Is Prejudice?"), and discussions revolved around the problem of prejudice in adults and children. After the fourth or fifth session, teachers were asked to teach the parts of the Curriculum most relevant to their classrooms and to discuss at the next session what happened in their classes. Small-group discussions were then held each week for these feedback sessions. Both institutes heard guest lecturers on occasion. Many films and other instructional resources were displayed. Concluding sessions were occupied with review and summary, as well as evaluation. What happened? By means of the pre-audits, much information was collected from the teachers with respect to grade levels at which they taught, their impressions about prejudice among their students, things they felt they needed for effective teaching about intergroup relations, and so on. (The pre-audit for institutes has constantly been improved. The most recent pre-audit, the one given for the December, 1968, seminar, is Appendix A to this section of the study.) The post-audits gave the Center the direct and critical observations of the participants. This evaluation, in addition to the Center's critiques, reveals a general pattern.

The Center felt that the two groups of participants in the spring of 1968, especially those from Arlington, were confused as to the basic purpose of the institute. Many teachers were surprised that the institute was totally devoted to intergroup relations; they had expected it to encompass the "new" social studies. This indicated that the understandings reached at between the Center and the sponsoring authorities as to the nature of the institutes were not communicated to the teachers as clearly as they might have been. With respect to the teachers, the Center felt that many were genuinely resistant to inductive methodology and that about one third appeared to have a low expectation of their students' response to inductive teaching or little understanding of the basic issues presented in the Curriculum. The Arlington group was too large for effective communication between Center staff and participants. The lack of responsiveness in group-discussion sessions by about 70% of the participants in both Arlington and Rhode Island indicated that teachers either were afraid to discuss the Curriculum and associated problems, were embarrased that they were not doing more between institute sessions, or were "turned off." It was also our impression that the majority of participants really were doing nothing between the sessions and, in particular, did not read the Race and Culture book or give much thought to the program until the actual meeting hours.

The post-audits from the participants confirmed many of these observations by the Center's staff. Most of the teachers agreed that it was difficult to teach the Curriculum and to respond in the feedback group discussions. They wanted more demonstration lessons, and they said that scheduling difficulties made it impossible to introduce the Curriculum at that time. With respect to the small-group discussions, many teachers said that the discussion leaders did not do an effective job. (In Arlington, local teachers without Center briefing were discussion leaders, while Center staff led the discussions in Providence.) A number of Arlington teachers felt somewhat inhibited by the presence of members of the administrative staff (some of whom were not generally supportive of the institute). Rhode Island teachers came from all kinds of school systems. Some expected lessons on integration of schools, while some others had minority problems which were not well covered in the Curriculum.

From all of this, it might appear that the two institutes were not generally successful. This is not the case. On the positive side of the ledger, the Center received much excellent feedback on a personal basis from many participants; and there was some fine reporting in the group sessions at both institutes, irrespective of the fact that this came from only about 30% of the participants. (We must assume that many teachers are reluctant to tell others of their successes or failures in introducing a new curriculum.) Of greater importance, 47% of the Rhode Island teachers and 72% of the Arlington teachers reported in the post-audit that because of their participation in the institutes, they were much more aware of their own sensitivities and of the problems of intergroup relations in the United States. In the post-audit, 66% of the Rhode Island participants and 75% of the Arlington participants stated that they intended to revise their curriculum and introduce Center and other materials in developing a program in intergroup relations education. Of course, we do not know the extent to which this actually has been the case and in what respects curriculum change has taken place. We do have such information on a casual basis; however, we cannot supply hard data on this point.

The Center did learn very much from the criticisms of the institutes which were offered by its own staff and by the participants. We were encouraged by the anonymous reporting of change and of intention to introduce new programming in inter-intergroup relations education. We were elated at much of the positive feedback during the institutes, although somewhat discouraged by the negative factors mentioned above. These points were taken into consideration in the organization of the next phase of the institutes, to which we now turn.

### 2. Inservice Programs, Summer and Fall, 1968

#### a. The Castle Square Project

This was a Tufts summer (1968) project in inner-city Boston for some 50 students in the intermediate grades. The Curriculum was used in the midst of a summer activity program which took place in a storefront. The four teachers of the heterogeneous group of young people were from the Boston school system, and they had almost no instruction in the use of the Curriculum aside from the materials and guidance contained in the book, Race and Culture in American Life. There was no firm evaluation. Impressions were that most of the students responded well to the limited parts of the Curriculum to which they were exposed; and Mr. Albert Pierce of the Center's staff, who was associate director of the project, recommended that this approach be used again in an inner-city program. He stressed, however, the need for better preparation of the teachers and a better relationship between the curricular and noncurricular aspects of such a summer program. He also felt that some suburban students should be involved in this kind of inner-city program.

#### b. Winchester Institute

The Center, in cooperation with the Winchester Public Schools, planned eight two-hour sessions for Winchester elementary school teachers. About 20 Winchester teachers volunteered for the program, which met at the Center every Wednesday afternoon in October and November, 1968. The design and objectives of the program were basically the same as the institutes held in the spring of 1968 in Arlington and Rhode Island; but there were different features and combinations which made the Winchester institute much more of a success than those held in the spring.

In the first place, we profited greatly from the critiques of the spring seminars, a point which soon will be evident. Secondly, we had a much improved and more refined Curriculum. The changes and modifications of the spring and summer, many of which were the result of feedback from the spring institutes, gave us instructional materials and teaching strategies which--to put the matter quite simply--were better. In the third place, we had teachers from one school·system who had volunteered--or who wanted--to come. We made it quite clear that they would be expected to teach the Curriculum and to report their experiences, but this gave a note of informality to the proceedings. We had a small group which came to the Lincoln Filene Center once a week. Although they were with us after a full teaching day, they were relaxed, and so were we. The Center staff found that weekly trips to Arlington and Rhode Island were taxing, especially when we took with us our resources, films, and other Curriculum artifacts. Having the institute in our own building did seem to make a significant difference. A resumé of the evaluation of the Winchester institute speaks for itself (Appendix B to this section of the study).

It should be added that the geographical proximity of Winchester enabled members of the Center's staff to visit some of the schools where the Curriculum was taught and thus to observe, obtain feedback for Curriculum improvement, develop evaluation reports for discussion among members of the Center's staff, and advise the teachers where and when such advice seemed to be appropriate. The Winchester teachers also could draw upon the Center's library of instructional resources in intergroup relations, and thus this relationship, which, of course, continues, appears to be profitable to both the Center and the Winchester teachers.

### c. Cambridge Institute

In September, 1968, the Center was requested by the Cambridge (Massachusetts) Public Schools to organize an institute for teachers from that system who were interested in the program. Because of scheduling problems, it was decided that three three-hour sessions would be the best basis of organization. Again, this was a different approach from previous seminars; however, the Center then and now seeks to find the most effective ways of organizing institutes for teachers. The three sessions were held on October 21, 22, and 28, 1968, at the Houghton School in Cambridge, and 33 elementary school teachers attended. During these nine hours, the Center staff sought to present the most outstanding features of its previous institutes. Curriculum background and explanation, sensitivity orientation, instructional resources, and open discussion marked the first two sessions, while the first half of the third session was devoted to feedback. The second half was review, summary, and evaluation.

The principal difficulty with the Cambridge program was it was too brief. More time than nine hours is needed to bring the Curriculum to teachers. Also, the Center's supply of materials on the Curriculum was quite short and the Cambridge group could not therefore grasp the basic structure and content of the Curriculum. Nevertheless, a genuine start has been made in the Cambridge schools, and the Center will continue its work with some of the elementary school teachers there.

d. December Seminar

In the fall of 1968, it became abundantly clear to the Center that it was necessary to develop a new format for its institutes. It is impossible to sponsor institutes for individual school systems, given the vast number of such systems requesting assistance and the problems of staff travel and other details pertaining to the organization of inservice programs. Therefore, the Center conceived the idea of sponsoring an intensive three-day seminar for systems which sought Center assistance in inservice education in intergroup relations education. A seminar was planned for December 4th, 5th, and 6th, to be held at the Center, and information about this program was circulated among the members of the Coordinating Council of the Northeastern States Citizenship Project and school systems in those nine states which had requested assistance from the Center. Again, the Center stated that it expected participating systems to use the Curriculum and report to the Center the manner in which the Curriculum was used. We also requested, in general, that each system be represented by two teachers and one administrator.

The schedule for this program is set forth in Appendix C to this part of Section III. The listing of participants is Appendix D. The seminar's pre-audit is Appendix A (based upon experiences of previous pre-audits), and the evaluation, or post-audit, is Appendix E. A resumé of the evaluation is Appendix F, and the Center feels that this evaluation (anonymous, of course) reflects steady progress in our attempts to provide a multiplier effect for the Curriculum.

The December seminar was a success. The participants were congenial and spoke up with respect to a number of problems in the realm of education in intergroup relations. The refined Curriculum was available, and some new films were shown which had a significant impact in the area of "sensitivity orientation." We feel that the schedule and evaluation speak for themselves. In the organization and presentation of the December seminar, we drew upon the best feedback from previous institutes, and we are drawing upon the positive and negative evaluation of this seminar in the planning of our inservice programs for 1969.

### e. Other Teaching Programs

The Curriculum was taught in academic 1967-68 and in the fall of 1968 by Center clinical teaching consultants in a number of school systems. In particular, it continued to be an integral part of the work of Mrs. John Hilbert in the Newton (Massachusetts) Public Schools, Miss Barbara Hafner in the Medford (Massachusetts) Public Schools, and Mrs. Barbara Anderson in Lexington (Massachusetts). Mrs. Hilbert was a consultant for the Winchester institute; and Miss Hafner introduced many modifications and refinements in the intermediate units on American Indians and The Declaration of Independence.

More than 2,000 copies of Race and Culture in American Life have been distributed by the Center since October, 1967; and we are familiar with the work of many teachers throughout the United States in using the Curriculum in their schools. Some were frustrated by having gone through the Curriculum without having any additional materials to use. One letter among many from teachers was from Mr. J.G. Dorrance of the Maumee Valley Country Day School of Maumee, Ohio, who wrote in September 19, 1967:

> My fourth graders are literally eating up this material. They love it. Within two weeks, we will have completed the material so far presented. Please send me the follow-up material as soon as possible--I have an enthusiastic class with nowhere to go. . . .

Hopefully, the Curriculum presented in Section II of this study will provide Mr. Dorrance and other teachers who are using it with many materials to carry on this important work.

### 3. Inservice Education: An Overview

We have stressed repeatedly in this study the need for the enlightened and sensitive teacher who, through inductive methodology, can lead students toward desirable objectives for education in democratic intergroup relations. We have not addressed ourselves sufficiently to meeting this need through preservice education, although we fully expect that this will be one of our major thrusts for 1969.

Our principal concern this past year has been the development of different kinds of inservice programs in order that we may learn from experimentation and that we may develop truly effective inservice institutes in intergroup relations education. We believe that we have learned a great deal and that the programs we shall sponsor in 1969 will reflect this experience. An overview statement on this matter is as follows:

We will continue to use the Curriculum as the basis for inservice education. We feel that teachers will learn by using the Curriculum and that responses from students will also add greatly to teacher education. This is particularly true if and when the teacher feels "comfortable" in teaching about intergroup relations in the classroom. We would vastly prefer to work with teachers who want to learn about the teaching-learning process in intergroup relations. Teachers who are obliged to participate in institutes generally are resentful and even hostile, and their attitudes are damaging to their colleagues who are eager to learn and participate as well as to their students. We found this definitely to be the case in the Arlington program, and we have not conducted an institute since that time which includes teachers who are required to take the program.

We are convinced that our inservice programs, especially the more recent ones, can have a very positive impact on participants. We know of many cases of fine multiplier effects of our programs, and significant things are happening in school systems because of the work of our teacher-participants when they return to their schools. Two teachers who were with us in December, 1968, from the Westwood (Massachusetts) Public Schools launched an inservice program in Westwood that appears to be having fine results. They felt perfectly competent in carrying on their program without further assistance from the Lincoln Filene Center, and this is exactly what we hoped for in sponsoring this institute. Mrs. Philip Carter and Mrs. Jean Hicks of the Campus School, State University College, New Paltz, New York--both participants in the December seminar--will use the Curriculum in their preservice work and in model programs at New Paltz. These are only a few examples among many.

Mrs. Barbara Anderson of the Lexington (Massachusetts) school system has provided us with an excellent example of how a single teacher can organize an inservice program in one school system and use the Curriculum with other teachers in a multiplier effect without Center assistance. She has, of course, the support of a superb administrator, Dr. Rudolph Fobert, Superintendent of the Lexington Public Schools. The same is true of Miss Claire Halverson of the Winchester (Massachusetts) Public Schools and her superintendent, Dr. Donald Klemer. Miss Halverson and her associates have improvised upon the Curriculum in many ways (as presented in Section II of this study), and when we see enterprising teachers engaging in innovative practices and employing the Curriculum in ways we did not anticipate (but ways we fully endorse!), we are convinced that our instructional program has the flexibility and basic integrity to be employed in many kinds of schools.

In brief, we have learned much from our institutes, and we shall use this experience to provide even better inservice programs in 1969. We have used all kinds of feedback to improve the Curriculum as well, and we feel that as we proceed with our research and development, the Curriculum will be all the more effective in meeting the clear and present need for advancing democratic intergroup relations through the processes of education.

# Appendix A

## Pre-audit for the December Seminar

THE LINCOLN FILENE CENTER FOR CITIZENSHIP AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS

Tufts University
Medford, Massachusetts 02155

Seminar on a Curriculum on Intergroup Relations

December 4, 1968

1. What grade level do you teach?______________

For questions 2-7, please place the appropriate number beside each item indicating the degree from 0 to 3.

| | |
|---|---|
| 3 - a great deal | 1 - not much |
| 2 - somewhat | 0 - not at all |

2. To what degree do you think issues in American society revolving around racial and cultural diversity touch the lives of elementary-age children in the community where you teach? _________

3. To what degree do you think children at the age level you teach are aware of:

   a. Skin-color differences _____

   b. religious differences _____

   c. ethnic (nationality, cultural) differences _____

4. To what degree to you think children at the age level you teach are prejudiced regarding:

   a. skin-color differences _____

   b. religious differences _____

   c. ethnic differences _____

5. To what extent do your instructional materials really reflect the racial and cultural diversity in American life? ______

6. How much do you feel such "balanced" instructional materials contribute toward your students' better understanding and appreciation of democratic human relations? ______

7. To what extent do you feel your students are influenced by their parents in their attitudes toward people different from them? ______

******

8. Has there ever been discussion of these differences in your classroom? In what context?

9. Do you think such topics as race, culture, and ethnic origins should be freely discussed in the classroom?

10. Would you have any hesitations about doing so? If so, why?

11. How do you think your pupils would react to such discussions?

## Appendix B

## Evaluation of the Winchester Seminar

## WINCHESTER EVALUATION

| | quite poor | poor | satisfactory | good | quite good |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I. Seminar as a whole | | | | | |
| a. planning | | 1 | 5 | 6 | 2 |
| b. content | | | 3 | 7 | 4 |
| c. materials | | 2 | 1 | 9 | 2 |
| d. ideas | | | 1 | 6 | 7 |
| II. Film "Where is Prejudice?" | | | | 2 | 11 |
| III. Discussion of film "Where is Prejudice?" | | 1 | 2 | 6 | 3 |
| IV. Film of Dr. Thomas Pettigrew's lecture on "The Nature of Prejudice" | 1 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 4 |
| V. Film "Democratic Human Relations" | 1 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 1 |
| VI. Film "I Wonder Why ..." and audiotape of teacher leading class discussion of it | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 8 |
| VII. Film "Portrait of a Disadvantaged Child: Tommy Knight" | | | 1 | 5 | 8 |
| VIII. Filmstrip "Jerry Lives in Harlem" | | | 3 | 5 | 6 |
| IX. Filmstrip "Anthony Lives in Watts" | | 1 | 6 | 3 | 3 |
| X. Experiences in teaching IRC | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| XI. Feedback sessions | | | 1 | 6 | 7 |

XII. Did you find that use of the curriculum changed any of your attitudes?

Most of the teachers felt that, in fact, the seminar had changed their attitudes; and those who answered negatively admitted that they were at least more aware of them.

XIII. Did use of the curriculum in any way change your perceptions of the children's attitudes toward intergroup (and interpersonal) relations?

The teachers, on the whole, found that the children were more aware than they had thought, except for one who found them to be less aware.

XIV. Do you think the children's attitudes were affected in some way by the curriculum?

The children seemed to become more comfortable, tolerant, and aware after the curriculum was taught. The teachers who had answered negatively felt that they needed more time and more materials before they would see any significant change.

XV. Which activities did you find most useful and/or successful?

"I Wonder Why. . . " seemed the most popular with the Winchester group. The "is, feels, does, has" learning activity also seemed quite successful.

XVI. How would you suggest that we might improve the format of the Seminar?

Almost all of the teachers suggested that the seminar be lengthened--perhaps have a few meetings in the fall with a follow-up in the spring. Black teachers should be invited to attend, and bibliographies should be handed out at the first session. It was also suggested that the teachers sit in circles rather than rows for the purpose of discussion.

## Appendix C

## Schedule for the December Seminar

The Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs

Tufts University
Medford, Massachusetts 02155

## SCHEDULE

Seminar on the Intergroup Relations Curriculum

December 4, 5, and 6, 1968

The Paul Simons - Lt. Gutman Foundation of the Temple Israel Brotherhood extended generous support to this Seminar in honor of the late Samuel Barron, Jr., a founder and cherished friend of the Lincoln Filene Center.

The Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs

Tufts University
Medford, Massachusetts 02155

## SCHEDULE

Seminar on the Intergroup Relations Curriculum

December 4, 5, and 6, 1968

Wednesday,
December 4, 1968

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 9:00 a.m. - 9:30 a.m. | A. Registration | Lincoln Filene Center Foyer |
| 9:30 a.m. - 10:30 a.m. | B. Background of the Intergroup Relations Curriculum (IRC)<br>1. Center Programs in Intergroup Relations<br>2. The Need for the Curriculum | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 201 |
| | C. Questionnaire (Pre-audit) | |
| 10:30 a.m. - 10:45 a.m. | Coffee | Lincoln Filene Center Foyer |
| 10:45 a.m. - 12:30 p.m. | D. "Where is Prejudice?" (film) followed by discussion in small groups | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 101 |
| 12:30 p.m. - 1:45 p.m. | Luncheon | MacPhie Dining Hall |
| 1:45 p.m. - 2:15 p.m. | E. Intergroup Relations Curriculum<br>1. Goals of the IRC<br>2. Research and development of the IRC to present | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 201 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 2:15 p.m. - 3:00 p.m. | F. Overview of the Structure of the IRC | |
| | G. Explanation of the Governing Process (GP) as the Conceptual Framework | |
| 3:00 p.m. - 3:15 p.m. | Coffee | Lincoln Filene Center Foyer |
| 3:15 p.m. - 4:00 p.m. | H. Film on teaching the Governing Process and discussion | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 101 |
| 4:00 p.m. - 5:00 p.m. | I. Plenary Discussion Distribution of Materials | |

Thursday,

December 5, 1968

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 9:00 a.m. - 9:30 a.m. | A. Explanation of Interchange from GP to Similarities and Differences | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 201 |
| 9:30 a.m. - 10:00 a.m. | B. Tape of GP and Sameness and Difference | |
| 10:00 a.m. - 10:30 a.m. | C. Discussion of Reaction to GP materials and tape | |
| 10:30 a.m. - 10:45 a.m. | Coffee | Lincoln Filene Center Foyer |
| 10:45 a.m. - 11:15 a.m. | D. Discussion and distribution of learning activities | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 101 |
| 11:15 a.m. - 12:00 noon | E. "I Wonder Why..." (film) tape and discussion | |
| 12:00 noon - 1:30 p.m. | Luncheon | MacPhie Dining Hall |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1:30 p.m. - 2:00 p.m. | F. "Jerry Lives in Harlem" (filmstrip) and discussion | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 101 |
| 2:00 p.m. - 2:45 p.m. | G. "Something That's Real" (film) and discussion | |
| 2:45 p.m. - 3:30 p.m. | H. Introduction of Interactions Material and discussion | |
| 3:30 p.m. - 3:45 p.m. | Coffee | Lincoln Filene Center Foyer |
| 3:45 p.m. - 4:15 p.m. | I. Introduction of Methodological Tool of Ideal and Reality | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 101 |
| 4:15 p.m. - 4:45 p.m. | J. "Andy Lives in Watts" (filmstrip) | |
| 4:45 p.m. - 5:00 p.m. | K. Plenary Discussion | |
| Friday, December 6, 1968 | | |
| 9:00 a.m. - 9:30 a.m. | A. Introduction of Methodological Tool of Here and Now | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 201 |
| 9:30 a.m. - 10:00 a.m. | B. "Portrait of the Inner City" (film) and discussion | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 101 |
| 10:00 a.m. - 10:15 a.m. | Coffee | Lincoln Filene Center Foyer |
| 10:15 a.m. - 10:45 a.m. | C. Presentation of Units and discussion<br>1. American Indians<br>2. Declaration of Independence | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 101 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 10:45 a.m. - 12:00 noon | D. Materials and Methods and discussion | |
| 12:00 noon - 1:30 p.m. | Luncheon | MacPhie Dining Hall |
| 1:30 p.m. - 1:45 p.m. | E. Evaluation questionnaire (Post-audit) | Lincoln Filene Center, Room 101 |
| 1:45 p.m. - 5:00 p.m. | F. Discussion of teaching the Curriculum and clinical relations with the Center | |

# Appendix D

## Roster of the Participants
## at the
## December Seminar

# THE LINCOLN FILENE CENTER FOR CITIZENSHIP AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS

Tufts University
Medford, Massachusetts 02155

## Roster of Participants

in
Seminar of the Intergroup Relations Curriculum

December 4, 5, and 6, 1968

Mrs. Dorothy Albiser
Project Assistant
Title III Demonstration Center
St. Johnsbury, Vermont

Mrs. Barbara Anderson
Third and Fourth Grade teacher
Estabrook School
Lexington, Massachusetts

Mr. Edwin L. Borsari
Assistant Principal and
Fourth Grade teacher
Kingston Elementary School
Kingston, Massachusetts

Mrs. Philip Carter
The Campus School
State University College
New Paltz, New York

Mr. Rick Coughlin
Social Studies teacher
Marcia Buker School
Richmond, Maine

Miss Dorothy A. Dakin
Third Grade teacher
Center Elementary School
Bedford, Massachusetts

Mrs. Doris Demick
Project Director
Title III Demonstration Center
St. Johnsbury, Vermont

Mr. J. Barry Donovan
Fifth Grade teacher
Osgood School
Medford, Massachusetts

Mr. Bob Flaherty
State Department of
Education
Boston, Massachusetts

Mrs. Phyllis K. Francis
Fourth Grade teacher
Deerfield Elementary School
Westwood, Massachusetts

Mr. George Fuller
Elementary Supervisor
Orleans-Essex No.
Supervisory Union
Newport, Vermont

Miss Barbara Hafner
Fifth Grade teacher
Columbus School
Medford, Massachusetts

Mrs. Marjorie Ham
Social Studies teacher
Marcia Buker School
Richmond, Maine

Mrs. Jean Hicks
The Campus School
State University College
New Paltz, New York

Mr. Robert Horan
Principal
Maynard School
Manchester, New Hampshire

Mrs. Mary Huse
Fifth Grade teacher
Brooks Elementary School
Medford, Massachusetts

Mr. John Karakostas
Education Director
Model City Agency
Manchester, New Hampshire

Mr. Albert W. Kimball, Jr.
Fifth Grade teacher
Foster School
Hingham, Massachusetts

Miss Elaine Kulpa
Third Grade teacher
Foster School
Hingham, Massachusetts

Miss Suzanne Manners
Elementary School teacher
Ada B. Cheston School
Easton, Pennsylvania

Mr. Henry J. McLaughlin
Assistant Superintendent of
Elementary Schools
88 Lowell Street
Manchester, New Hampshire

Miss Anne M. Neyhart
Elementary School teacher
Centennial School
Easton, Pennsylvania

Miss Mary B. Pender
Third and Fourth Grade teacher
Downey School
Westwood, Massachusetts

Mrs. Judith Perry
Sixth Grade teacher
Lt. Job Lane School
Bedford, Massachusetts

Mr. Edwin Peterson
Principal
Sixth Grade teacher
Chairman of Social Studies
Plympton Elementary School
Plympton, Massachusetts

Mrs. Pearl Rentschler
Elementary Principal
West Ward Schools
Easton, Pennsylvania

Mr. Eldon B. Rosenberger
Principal
Foster School
Hingham, Massachusetts

Mrs. Alma Swiriduk
Fifth Grade teacher
North Pembroke Elementary
School
Pembroke, Massachusetts

Mr. William Terris
Principal
Hancock School
Lexington, Massachusetts

Mr. Don Torres
State Department of Education
Boston, Massachusetts

Mother Ursula
St. Clare School
61 Park Avenue
Woonsocket, Rhode Island

Miss Mikki Wenig
Elementary School teacher
Tufts Road School
Winchester, Massachusetts

Miss Anne Wright
Fourth Grade teacher
Nathaniel Page School
Bedford, Massachusetts

Mr. William L. York
Curriculum Supervisor
Marcia Buker School
Richmond, Maine

## Appendix E

## Evaluation Questionnaire (Post-audit)
## for the
## December Seminar

THE LINCOLN FILENE CENTER FOR CITIZENSHIP AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS

Tufts University
Medford, Massachusetts 02155

6 December 1968

## Evaluation of the Seminar on the Intergroup Relations Curriculum

Note:

Please respond to questions 1-15 with a number from 1 to 5. The rating scale is as follows:

1. "quite poor" -- of no use to me
2. "poor" -- but may be of some value to me
3. "satisfactory" -- gave me something to think about
4. "good" -- gave me new ideas, can be adapted to my teaching, helps me quite a bit
5. "quite good" -- of great value to my thinking and teaching, a major contribution to my profession

1. The Seminar as a whole -- its
    a. planning __________
    b. content __________
    c. materials __________
    d. ideas __________
2. The film "Where Is Prejudice?" __________
3. Discussion of "Where Is Prejudice?" __________
4. The Governing Process as the conceptual framework for the Intergroup Relations Curriculum __________
5. The film of Dr. Gibson teaching the Governing Process ("Democratic Human Relations") __________

6. Tape of a class discussion of the Governing Process, sameness, and difference ____________

7. The Learning Activities ____________

8. The film "I Wonder Why..." ____________

9. Tape of a class discussion of "I Wonder Why..." ____________

10. The filmstrip "Jerry Lives in Harlem" ____________

11. The film "Something That's Real" ____________

12. The filmstrip "Anthony Lives In Watts" ____________

13. The film "Portrait of a Disadvantaged Child: Tommy Knight" ____________

14. American Indians Unit ____________

15. Declaration of Independence Unit ____________

***

16. Do you feel that the Seminar has changed any of your attitudes? If so, how?

17. Which of the suggested lessons, activities, units, films, etc., would you expect to be the most useful and/or successful with your pupils? Why?

Which would you expect to be the least useful and/or successful? Why?

18. How would you suggest that we might improve the format of the Seminar?

19. What areas treated in the Seminar do you think should receive greater stress in the future?

20. What areas treated in the Seminar do you think merit less time than they were given?

# Appendix F

## Evaluation of the December Seminar

## DECEMBER SEMINAR EVALUATION

| | quite poor | poor | satisfactory | good | quite good |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I. Seminar as a whole | | | | | |
| a. planning | | | 1 | 8 | 16 |
| b. content | | | 1 | 7 | 17 |
| c. materials | | | 2 | 7 | 16 |
| d. ideas | | | | 5 | 20 |
| II. Film "Where is Prejudice?" | | | 1 | 10 | 14 |
| III. Discussion of above | | | 9 | 8 | 7 |
| IV. Governing Process as the conceptual framework | | | 1 | 9 | 14 |
| V. Film "Democratic Human Relations" | 3 | 3 | 7 | 7 | 3 |
| VI. Tape of classroom discussion of governing process, sameness, and difference | | | 2 | 14 | 8 |
| VII. The Learning Activities | | | 2 | 9 | 12 |
| VIII. Film "I Wonder Why..." | | | 4 | 11 | 9 |
| IX. Tape of classroom discussion of above | | | 6 | 13 | 5 |
| X. Filmstrip "Jerry Lives in Harlem" | | | 7 | 10 | 7 |
| XI. Film "Something That's Real" | | | 2 | 5 | 17 |
| XII. Filmstrip "Anthony Lives in Watts" | | 1 | 11 | 8 | 4 |
| XIII. Film "Portrait of a Disadvantaged Child: Tommy Knight" | | 1 | 1 | 11 | 11 |
| XIV. American Indians Unit | | | 4 | 9 | 9 |
| XV. Declaration of Independence Unit | | | | 7 | 14 |

XVI. Do you feel that the Seminar has changed any of your attitudes? If so, how?

68% felt the seminar had definitely changed their attitudes; 4% thought attitudes had changed somewhat; 16% reported no significant change; while 12% weren't sure whether any change had taken place.

XVII. Which of the suggested lessons, activities, units, films, etc., would you expect to be the most useful and/or successful with your pupils? Why? Which would you expect to be the least useful and/or successful? Why?

Half the teachers cited "I Wonder Why..." as likely to be particularly useful and/or successful with their pupils. A third singled out use of the governing process concept for praise. Three teachers thought the Warren Schloat filmstrips might be potentially harmful. One teacher thought the use of inductive teaching methods would not work in his situation, while another commented that the methodology was a more significant contribution of the program than the materials.

XVIII. Suggestions for improving the format of the Seminar

A. Have materials distributed for reading in advance.
B. Have small groups for discussion.
C. Have more time for discussion.
D. Have as wide a representation of ethnic groups as possible.
E. Have a follow-up seminar in the spring.
F. Provide a list of additional materials available.
G. End the sessions around 3 p.m.

XIX. What areas treated in the Seminar do you think should receive greater stress in the future?

Teachers felt more emphasis should be placed on ways of helping them to use inductive teaching methods and that more examples of the use of the governing process could be given. A few suggested role playing, going over the learning activities as students.

XX. What areas treated in the Seminar do you think merit less time than they were given?

Quite a few teachers felt that too much emphasis was placed on Negroes as an ethnic group.

## III - B

## Evaluation and the Intergroup Relations Curriculum

Generally speaking, the phase of the project covered in this report was not concerned with evaluating student progress toward desirable behavioral objectives for education in intergroup relations. In the Center's 1967 study, Race and Culture in American Life, much attention was focused on evaluation. (The "Report of Evaluation Activities: Summer 1967" from that study has been reprinted on pages 106-217 of this section.) This is by no means to say that the Center is not presently concerned with evaluation of students who have participated in one manner or another in the Curriculum. It is absolutely imperative to evaluate the affective development of the child toward specified objectives. We have encountered many difficulties in designing valid evaluation instruments, and we share with others some of the problems inherent in this area.

> An attitude is an expression, by word or deed, of an individual's reaction toward or feeling about a person, a thing, or a situation. Attitudes may not be measured directly but may be approached only through behavior believed to be a representative index of the attitude that underlies it. A problem in using measures of attitude is that verbal and other overt expressions of attitudes are not infallible indicators of the actual existence of that attitude in the person being measured. Among the various approaches to attitude assessment may be listed observation, interviews, specific performances, pictorial and projective techniques, sociometry, analysis of personal documents, and questionnaires. (John E. Horrocks and Thelma I. Schoonover, Measurement for Teachers. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1968, p. 490)

Marian Radke Yarrow explores this point in some detail in her paper, "The Measurement of Children's Attitudes and Values," Chapter 16 of Paul Henry Mussen (ed.), Handbook of Research Methods in Child Development (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960). She notes that "children are difficult research subjects, and only the beginnings of methodological research bearing upon their functioning as research subjects have been made." (p. 684)

Many educators have sought to measure children's attitudes in the area of intergroup relations, and they generally have failed for one reason or another. A New York (City) Board of Education test, designed to measure racial attitudes of pupils toward one another, was withdrawn after it provoked angry confrontations between school officials and parents. The test consisted of 18 stories, each one containing a hero or a villain. The pupils were supposed to mark an answer sheet indicating whether they thought the hero or the villain was "Negro, white, or 'Spanish-speaking.'" They also indicated their own races or linguistic backgrounds. A psychologist, Dr. Charles H. Stember, stated: "I was horrified by the test in which the child is given forced choices, with no opportunity to indicate that he has no choice. He's encouraged to give the 'best answer' and that answer is bound to be a prejudiced answer. No test should be designed to create an attitude in a child's mind." (The New York Times, October 22, 1967) Dr. Stember's six-year-old daughter, incidentally, was in a class which took the test. Another authority noted that "since the scale was designed to measure emotional attitudes, it caused emotional reaction, and I don't suppose we'll be able to get around that." (Ibid.)

This, of course, is a central problem endemic to evaluation in the affective domain, especially in intergroup relations. How can one deal with and evaluate inherently emotional problems and issues in order to find out whether any instructional program is indeed having its desired effects? The New York test was not associated with any particular educational input or curriculum, and exactly what it was designed to measure or reveal is not certain. The existing research on race, per se, and on identifications and stereotypes associated with particular ethnic, religious, and national groups is hardly adequate to provide solid foundations for instruments which can measure attitudes and values precisely. On this particular point, the reader would find the symposium, "Race and Science," in the Columbia University Forum, Spring, 1967, of great value. Theodosius Dobzhansky's, Dwight Ingle's, and Morton Fried's papers in this symposium, along with the work of many other social scientists, must be carefully examined and considered before we can make much progress in the testing and evaluation of attitudes and values in the domain of intergroup relations.

And yet we are optimistic that progress can be made. We have stated many times that emotional issues should be explored in the classroom, and we feel that if such inquiry, discovery, and exploration do take place within the confines of a specific curriculum or instructional program which has well-defined objectives, we can evaluate relations between processes of education and student advancement (or nonadvancement) toward objectives. In spite of the fundamental problems which are obvious, we take heart in the light of some of the current research and development in evaluation taking place in the United States.

> . . . good evaluation of his /official school/ curriculum can take place on "home ground," in spite of its many unique--

> and probably unmeasured--factors. . . . Curriculum developers and educators are tempted to de-emphasize evaluation because of the complex and sometimes ill-defined methodological problems present. To do so is a tragic mistake indeed. If tight methodology is impossible, in a given instance, it does not follow that evaluation attempts should be virtually abandoned. (Ralph Tyler, Robert Gagne, and Michael Schriven, "Perspectives on Curriculum Evaluation," AERA Monograph Series on Curriculum Evaluation, #1. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1967, p. 89)

The work of the American Educational Research Association, the National Council on Measurement in Education, and other agencies should continue to provide us with many leads for evaluation in intergroup relations education.

The instruments and results of our evaluation can be found in our 1967 study, Race and Culture in American Life, and in our 1967 report to the Office of Education, op. cit. We have used those instruments and designs which were prepared in the summer of 1967 by Dr. Helen J. Kenney, at that time of Northeastern University, and her associates. We intend to focus strongly on student evaluation during 1969 and, in particular, to develop evaluation instruments and designs which will not reflect a "tight methodology" nor seek "to create an attitude in a child's mind." Now that the Curriculum has reached another plateau in its development and considerable progress has been made in inservice teacher education, we shall move ahead with evaluation based upon the specific objectives of the Curriculum itself. Our efforts will be directed toward specific evaluative criteria of validity, reliability, pervasiveness, timeliness, and credibility. (See Stufflebaum, D. L., "Toward A Science of Education Evaluation," Educational Technology, July 30, 1968.)

The reader might be interested to know of the research and studies upon which we are drawing as we advance our work in the area of evaluation of student progress toward the objectives of the Curriculum. They are as follows:

Allport, Gordon W., The Nature of Prejudice. Garden City, New York: Doubleday Anchor Books, 1958, especially Chapter 30, "Evaluation of Programs"

Amidon, Edmund J., and John B. Hough (ed.), Interaction Analysis: Theory Research and Application. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1967, especially Part 2 by Amidon and Flanders, "Interaction Analysis as a Feedback System"

Berg, Harry D. (ed.), *Evaluation in the Social Studies.* Washington, D.C: National Council for the Social Studies, 35th Yearbook, 1965, especially the chapter by Lewis B. Mahew, "Measurement of Noncognitive Objectives in the Social Studies"

Bloom, Benjamin, *et al.*, *Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning.* New York: McGraw-Hill Company, 1968

Clawson, Edward C., *A Study of Attitudes of Prejudice Against Negroes in an All-White Community.* Doctoral dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, Graduate School, Department of Elementary Education,1968

Cohen, Dorothy H., and Virginia Stern, *Observing and Recording the Behavior of Young Children.* New York: Teachers College Press, 1967

De Cecco, John P. (ed.), *Human Learning in the School.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1967, especially Chapter 10, "The Measurement of Learning," and the paper by Dorothy Adkins, "Measurement in Relation to the Educational Process"

*Educational Testing Service--Annual Report.* Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service. The annual reports for recent years have excellent papers on testing and evaluation.

*Evaluation Comment.* Publication of the Center for the Study of Evaluation of Instructional Programs, 145 Moore Hall, University of California, Los Angeles, California, 90024. M.C. Whittrock and E.L. Lindman are co-directors of the Center, and M.C. Wittrock is the editor of *Evaluation Comment.*

Gronlund, Norman E. (ed.), *Readings in Measurement and Evaluation.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1968

*Journal of Educational Measurement.* Official publication of the National Council on Measurement in Education, Southwest Regional Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 11300 La Cienega Boulevard, Inglewood, California

Oppenheim, A.N., *Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement.* New York: Basic Books, 1966

*Secondary Schools Curriculum Guide: Teaching About Minorities in Classroom Situations.* New York: Bureau of Curriculum Development, Board of Education of the City of New York, 1968, especially the section dealing with evaluation

Shaw, Marvin E., and Jack M. Wright, Scales for Measure of Attitudes. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967

Worthen, Blaine R., "Toward a Taxonomy of Evaluation Designs," Educational Technology, August 15, 1968

Irwin M. Rubin, Assistant Professor of Management, Alfred P. Sloan School of Management at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has evaluated two of the Lincoln Filene Center's inservice programs for teachers, and an accounting of his findings may be found in The Journal of Adult Education, Vol. XIX, No. 1, 1967, pages 43 - 52. He draws upon the work of D. Katz and I. Sarnoff ("Motivational Basis of Attitude Change," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. XLIX, 1954, pages 115 - 124) in the development of his evaluation instruments. Rubin agrees with Katz and Sarnoff in raising these questions: What does an individual gain by holding an attitude? What functional purpose does it serve in the individual's efforts to cope with his environment? They find that an attitude can serve one or more of three major motivational forces: 1) reality testing and the search for meaning, or the need to acquire consistent knowledge about the external world; 2) reward and punishment, including the needs to gain social acceptance and to avoid social disapproval; and 3) ego-defenses, or the need to defend against inner conflict. Therefore, a program designed to change attitudes, especially one which moves people away from prejudice and toward covert and overt behavior generally reflecting democratic human relations, must in some way relate to the reasons why people hold prejudicial attitudes. This suggests that there is a difference between the way children develop prejudices and the motives which lead adults (especially teachers) to hold prejudices. It is therefore necessary to differentiate evaluation of the means by which any program in intergroup relations seeks to advance elementary school students toward democratic human relations behavior from the evaluation of the means by which the program seeks to change teacher attitudes. The future work of the Center in evaluation will certainly take these points into full account.

We now turn to the evaluation designs and procedures developed by Dr. Helen J. Kenney and her associates for the 1966 - 1967 phase of the Intergroup Relations Curriculum project. The Center expects to build on and expand some of Dr. Kenney's approaches during 1969.

# REPORT OF EVALUATION ACTIVITIES: SUMMER 1967

Dr. Helen J. Kenney

in collaboration with

Barbara W. Harris
Kenneth Weene
Mildred McIntyre
Rosalyn Miller

# Preface

The general purpose of the summer evaluation program was to develop and try out evaluation procedures related to the two curricula which embody the instructional materials and teaching strategies on race and culture in America at the elementary school level. From July 5 to August 18, 1967, the evaluation team designed and tried out materials and procedures with children in what we came to call the Lower Grade Unit (grades 1 - 3) and the Upper Grade Unit (grades 4 - 6).

The work of the summer was truly collaborative in the sense that no one individual was entirely responsible for any one aspect of the over-all evaluation program. As the director of evaluation, I was assisted by an able, imaginative, and concerned staff who worked directly with me on the development of evaluation materials and procedures, coding schemes, tabulation and analysis of data. However, the guiding rationale of the program of evaluation and the final synthesis of findings, with whatever shortcomings there might be, are mine alone.

Although we co-operated as a team, certain specific contributions of various staff members should be mentioned. Mrs. Barbara W. Harris provided imaginative ideas for the content and format of the interviews and the stereotype-sorting test. Mr. Kenneth Weene supplied fresh insights into the coded data emanating from the pre- and post-responses of children to the sentence-completion instrument in the three Medford (Massachusetts) schools where the Upper Grade Unit was presented in the spring of 1967. His reflections on these data have resulted in a proposed revision of the sentence-completion instrument which had been used to determine stereotypic thinking regarding selected groups among elementary school children. Miss Mildred McIntyre contributed particularly to the development of a practical scheme for interpreting children's drawings to be used by teachers in the regualr classroom. Throughout the entire project, Miss Rosalyn Miller ably assisted in coding, tabulating, and graphing the information derived from the various evaluaation procedures.

Of course, it would not have been possible to accomplish anything without the assistance and co-operation of the teachers and the students in the summer classes in Brookline and Lowell. While we were fortunate in being able to try out the early interviews with children in the Lower Grade Unit at the Heath School, in Brookline, the bulk of the work was done at Lowell in the summer program operating under ESEA Title I.

Special recognition of the co-operation of the teachers who worked under the capable direction of Miss Mary Lou Denning, Title I Coordinator in Lowell (Massachusetts), must be noted. Finally, the competence of Miss Jane B. Benson in co-ordinating the activities of the evaluation staff with the ongoing summer school programs provided the stable framework within which it was possible to carry out the program of evaluation.

Helen J. Kenney
Director of Evaluation

# A. RATIONALE AND GENERAL DESIGN

## A. RATIONALE AND GENERAL DESIGN

### Some General Guidelines of Evaluation[1]

The "problem of evaluation," as viewed in this project, is how to assess practically the impact of a particular "course" on pupils. Conventional after-the-fact evaluation -- whether, for example, a course has accomplished its task - is not the principal concern, although this kind of information is an automatic by-product of the approach taken to the matter of evaluation. Rather, the issue is how to obtain information about the children's predispositions and reactions early enough in the process of curriculum building to provide the curriculum builders with "feedback in real time," at a time and in a form to help in the design of methods and materials.

In other words, evaluation is viewed as a type of instructional research in the form of educational intelligence to provide guidance for curriculum construction and pedagogy. Moreover, evaluation is most effectively carried on when there is a complete cadre at work: the curriculum planner, the teacher, the evaluator, and the pupils.

Finally, it is believed that the most relevant procedures for the more conventional pre- and post-auditing of what a student learns as a result of a course of study will be produced by evaluation approaches which examine not only the product or content of learning but also the process by which the child succeeds or fails to master that which is to be learned.

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[1] This approach to evaluation was originated by Dr. Jerome S. Bruner in the course of his work with the ESI Elementary Social Studies Curriculum in the summer of 1964.

## The Design of the Evaluation Procedures

### General Aims

As a beginning toward a comprehensive system of evaluation techniques, a number of procedures have been devised to focus on a particularly relevant dimension of behavior for the concerns of the present curriculum, namely, prejudice in children. To delimit what is a highly complex form of human behavior, it seemed desirable to concentrate at the outset on selected aspects of prejudice, namely, stereotyped thinking regarding selected groups and the beginning tendencies of children to be exclusive and intolerant in their behavior and attitudes toward what they define as "other" groups. This beginning tendency was to be measured primarily in terms of the social and physical distance a child wishes to maintain between himself and members of other groups.

### Evaluation Techniques: Upper Grade

1. Stereotype-Sorting Exercise. This technique is an adaptation of typical tests determining a subject's stereotypes of various groups by way of adjective attribution to selected minority, racial, ethnic, cultural groups. The data should reveal actual stereotypes of certain groups; specificity of stereotypes; and the social distance which a child places between himself and members of

selected groups. (This was determined by a ranking test built into the sorting exercise). This test differed from the conventional tests, however, in the following ways: its vocabulary was modified for the age level involved; its form was changed into a sorting rather than a written test to ensure maximum involvement and interest on the part of the child by avoiding what is often viewed as a tiresome task, namely, "writing"; and a ranking test was included to determine the children's order of preference for selected groups.

2. Children's Drawings. The students were asked to do the same series of drawings as the lower grade students; i.e., three sets of drawings through which a child may project some elements of how he is perceiving members of groups different from the one he considers "his group." A more detailed description of this procedure will be given later in connection with the Lower Grade Unit for which it was expressly designed.

3. Sentence-Completion Measure. A sentence-completion instrument was used to determine stereotypic thinking regarding selected groups and to discover the basic conceptions that children have with respect to some general topics and concepts involved in the curriculum (e.g., government, slums, etc.).

## Evaluation Techniques: Lower Grade

Evaluation techniques at this level are generally restricted by the inability of children of this age to handle exercises requiring extensive ability to read or write. The techniques evolved, therefore, consisted of (1) oral interviews and (2) drawings or art work done by the children.

1. Oral Interviews. a) Interview I: "Debriefing." This interview tells us how much children of this age are "aware" of "other groups", of groups "different" from themselves; how the children are defining "different from;" what they consider their own peer group (i.e., the identity of what they consider their own group and the identity of "other" groups); and how much, if any, awareness of other groups is beginning to shade over into prejudice. (i. e., how much "differentness" becomes a signal for intolerance.)

The interview was designed to be relatively open so as to give as much information as possible about an area in which relatively little is known; age levels when children become aware of and attach importance to groups and group differences.

b) Interview II: "Story Completion." This interview is more directed. It presents the child with a series of pictures of children who are visibly different from themselves (Negroes, Orientals, etc.). Using a story developed around this series of pictures, the child is asked to fill in the story at critical points in response to questions designed primarily to see the following: how much importance he is already attaching to physical differences; how much he is already automatically suspicious of or frightened by such differences; and how many negative (or affirmative) connotations or implications he is now attaching to these differences.

c) Interview III: "Color Preference." This interview provides background material for the interpretation of the children's drawings and supplementary material to reveal to what extent color connotations may be affecting a child's attitude toward members of groups visibly different from his own in color.

2. Children's Drawings. This evaluative technique consisted of a series of drawings through which it was thought a child would project some elements of how he is perceiving minority groups. The technique is practical in the sense that it requires less personnel and thus might be more feasible in school situations where personnel and time for individual interviews present a problem; it fits in naturally with the ongoing curriculum and classroom activities; it is directed, since it requires specific information from the child and yet is open in that the child is given freedom to express the types and amounts of information which he feels are relevant; and, finally, it removes the possible unintentional bias of interviewer or written questions.

## B. THE EVALUATION MATERIALS AND PROCEDURES

## B. THE EVALUATION MATERIALS AND PROCEDURES

In this section, the specific materials and procedures used at each unit level will be described. The sample will be self-explanatory in most instances, but there will be interpolated commentary at various points to provide necessary background for the understanding of the report of preliminary findings to be discussed in the next section.

First, let us consider the procedures used with the Upper Grade Level.

1. Stereotype-Sorting Exercise. This procedure is described in highly specific detail in Exhibit A which follows. The twenty-four adjectives constituting a single set, each of which was typed on a separate card and from which the child made his selections for each group to be placed in a colored envelope, are classified as follows:

Affirmative

Differentiated
- Clean and neat
- Fun to be with
- Good sport
- Hard working
- Has guts
- Honest
- Polite
- Smart
- Thinks up good ideas

Undifferentiated
- (depends on frame of reference)
- Rich
- Nice

Negative

Differentiated
- Bad
- Dirty
- Dumb
- Fights a lot
- Lazy
- Money crazy
- Noisy
- Show-off
- Troublemaker
- Ugly
- Tries to take over and run things

Undifferentiated
- (depends on frame of reference)
- Poor
- Not very nice

Exhibit B is the recording sheets for each sorting completed by a child and the final ranking of groups (cf. p.3 of the "Procedure Sheet for Sorting Exercise" for specific directions for the ranking of groups.)

Exhibit C is a sample set of cards.

2. Drawings. The list of drawings to be used for evaluation appears as Exhibit D. In the first tryouts at the Heath School, only A, B, and C in each set were done. However, the opportunity for getting a child's perceptions of school in relation to himself and others seemed too good to miss, so that D and E were added in the Lowell trials.

The criteria for evaluation will be described in connection with the Lower Grade Unit, since the older children were not able to produce a sufficient number of drawings for evaluation.

3. Sentence-Completion Measure. The instrument used in the pre- and post-auditing of the three Medford (Massachusetts) schools during the spring of 1967 yielded the data which will be presented and discussed in the section on findings. The instrument as administered at that time is given as Exhibit E.

Here, the coding scheme developed for the open-ended items in Part I will be described. Findings from Part II of the measure will be considered also in the section on preliminary findings.

The coding scheme for Part I is shown as Exhibit F. The code was developed from an examination of the total pre-and post-audit responses of the 75 Medford school children who completed either or both audits. In short, we have an exhaustive coding scheme for the data available at the present time. Specific responses were numbered from 01 to 50 (on selected groups #1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 9, 11) to permit for potential data processing. These 50 responses were grouped according to the following categories (see pp. 1-2 of the code book for specifics):

A. Undifferentiated - Generalizing - Global Descriptions
B. Physical Attributes - Geographical Factors
C. Cultural - Food, Religion, Language
D. Economic Characteristics
E. Personal Characteristics, Positive or Neutral
F. Personal Characteristics, Negative
G. Political (omitted because of so few responses, merged with D)
H. Social - Victimized, Put Upon

Response to Item 3, What is a Government?, #7 What is a Slum?, #8 Why do People Live in Slums?, #13 What Makes a Good Family? were also categorized as indicated in the code book. Responses to items 10, 12, 14 did not appear to cluster, so they were left as discrete items for coding purposes.

We turn now to the materials and procedures used with the Lower Grade Unit.

1. Oral Interviews. An interview manual (Exhibit G) for the Lower Grade Unit was prepared to furnish background notes on the purposes of the interviews, and notes on the techniques of conducting and recording the interview. Although there appears to be some specificity in the present version because of the focus on Negroes, in

actuality, any group as a group could be substituted in place of Negroes.

Interview I, "Debriefing," was tried out at the Heath School, Brookline, with six children. The original guide (Exhibit H) contained the following questions about Negroes (cf. Interview Guide: Part I):

1. Have you ever had a Negro friend? If yes, how close was the relationship?
2. Have you ever had a Negro neighbor? If yes, what was the nature of the relationship? Was he an adult or some one your own age?
3. Have you ever had a Negro classmate or teacher? How close was the relationship, and the child's impression of the Negro?
4. What Negroes besides the ones you have already talked about (questions 1-3) do you know?
5. Do you ever see Negroes around? For example, in your neighborhood, while shopping with your mother at the grocery store, at the movies, while with your parents downtown, on the playgrounds, just on the streets? When you see them, what are they doing? Do they seem nice or not too nice?
6. Do you ever see Negroes on T.V.? Baseball or sports players? Negro newscasters? Singers or dancers? Comedians? In stories like I Spy or other plays? Do you ever watch the news? What are they doing? Do they seem nice or not too nice?

In addition, one question (cf. p.2 of the Interview Guide) asked a general question about groups of people who may be different from one another.

It is worth noting at this point that the question with best yield in terms of meaningful material appears to be this general question about the child's perception of groups of people who may be different from the one to which he perceives himself as belonging. We suggest that further use of this particular debriefing with young children include this type of question rather than ones centering on specific groups.

Interview II, "Story Completion," is fully described in Exhibit I. The actual picture materials accompanying the telling of the story could not be reproduced for the report, but some idea of the general format may be gained from the numbered outlines given the teacher to aid in recording the child's selections from each picture (Exhibit J). It should be noted that Picture 1, although it is exhibited on two separate sheets, actually appeared on one large piece of colored construction paper.

The answer sheet is part of the interview guide itself.

Interview III, "Color Preference," was brief and to the point. Directions to the teacher, the questions, and a recording section for color ranking are shown in Exhibit K.

2. Children's Drawings. The last major source of evaluative data was the children's drawings. These have already been described in Exhibit D and require no further elaboration in relation to what the children were asked to draw. But a brief description of the rationale underlying this procedure and of the evaluative criteria that have been tentatively worked out is appropriate at this point.

The idea of using children's drawings to discover something of their feelings and thoughts about racial, ethnic, and cultural groups different from theirs came from the work of Robert Coles, who has written extensively about the civil rights movement in the North and South. Of particular interest to the present project is Coles's interest in what children tell about themselves with crayons and paints. In *Children of Crisis*[1] he describes how he used the drawings of children who were going through a period of extreme stress in their lives. These were the young Negro children in New Orleans whose entry into the white schools during the first two years of desegregation precipitated strenuous objections of mobs and a boycott by most white children. While Coles's immediate interest was to derive insights from the drawings of these children into the ways these children were managing the social and personal trials of desegregation, he suggests a more far-reaching concern regarding children's drawings as a technique for appraising growth, development, intelligence, and psychological status. He points out sharply, however, the substantial limitations in the present state of knowledge regarding interpretations and analyses of drawings whether done by children or adults. In the light of the empirical evidence currently available, it appears that valid analyses of drawings can be made only if a large number of them are obtained from a child over an extended period of time and if the child is given an opportunity to talk about what he draws. In other words, drawings constitute one source of data which have relevance when co-ordinated with other kinds of information.

Similarly, empirical studies which have been made of the Draw-a-Person Test and other projective drawing devices indicated in general that the usefulness of drawings is complemented by other evaluation procedures and methods and by background knowledge and understanding of the individual drawing the figures.[2]

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[1] Robert Coles, *Children of Crisis* Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1967, Chapter III, *passim.*

In the present instance, the attempt to use children's drawings as a way of learning something of their racial attitudes was frankly exploratory. It certainly seemed worth while to take advantage of material that children so abundantly and willingly produce and to do it in such a way that the regular classroom teacher could make direct instructional application of whatever could be learned from the study of these drawings. The general orientation was to develop evaluative criteria in terms of the perspective of a psychologist viewing the drawings rather than that of an artist. It is clear from previous studies that there is a near-zero correlation between the ratings of psychologists and the ratings of artists in relation to the artistic quality of a drawing. The psychologist is typically interested in the extent to which a drawing represents the reality of what is depicted; the artist is primarily concerned with balance, symmetry, freedom of expression, and esthetic appeal.[3] Looking at these differing conceptions of artistic quality in another way, one could say that the psychologist rates quality of drawing in terms of the more technical or objective aspects of the production. This approach appears to make the best sense in developing scoring schemes which could be used by teachers easily and without the help of outside specialists.

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[2] Bernard I. Murstein, ed. Handbook of Projective Techniques, New York: Basic Books, 1965, p. 679.

[3] Ibid, p. 669.

As a first approximation of a feasible scoring system, the following criteria were selected to be applied to the small sample of drawings obtained during the summer program:

1. Degree of attention and care, as evidenced in color and line
2. Relationship of elements in the picture, e.g., figures in relation to buildings, other figures, etc.
3. Relative size of figures
4. Relative amount of detail
5. Subject matter

It was hoped that these criteria would provide a reasonable way to categorize and classify the children's drawings in order to yield some useful insights into their perceptions of group differences.

In summary, an attempt was made to achieve the general aims of evaluation by way of oral and written responses taken together with children's drawings. What these techniques yielded in relation to the major questions of this initial phase of evaluation -- the extent of stereotypic thinking in children and the beginning signs and symptoms of intolerance toward people who are different -- will be considered in the next section.

## Exhibit A

### Upper Grade Unit

### Procedure Sheet for Stereotype Sorting Exercise

Exhibit A

## PROCEDURE SHEET FOR STEREOTYPE SORTING EXERCISE

### Materials

8 colored envelopes (2 1/2" x 6") for each child

8 sets of sorting cards (2 2" x 4" cards per set) for each child

1 magic marker for each child

1 large envelope (10"x 13") with child's name on it for each child

1 large box or shopping bag to be used as container for all unused cards

1 large cardboard display sheet listing the 8 different groups

Rubber bands

### Introducing exercise to children

Make this introduction in your own words: "The history of our country is different from that of many countries. It was settled by many, many different groups of people. You will be studying many of these groups. Some of them are groups from different countries, of different religions, of different skin colors, of different languages, customs, and ways of doing things. Now before we study these groups, I'd like to know what your ideas are about some of these groups. I'm going to pass out some materials which you will use in telling me what your ideas are about the groups I have listed on this big piece of cardboard."

Note to Teacher. Try to avoid any possible bias in the children's sorting through suggesting or intimating in any way that tolerance toward or a favorable attitude toward other groups is desired by the teacher. For example, by suggesting themes such as "These many groups had to learn to get along together." "It is good for a person to learn to see the good in the people in the groups different from his own," etc.

### Procedure

I. Sorting

1. Display the cardboard listing the groups so the students can see it.

2. Give each child:

   1 magic marker
   1 colored envelope
   1 set of cards

(Note: Give each child only 1 colored envelope and 1 set of cards at a time.)

3. Tell the child to look through the set of cards and choose those which he thinks describe the first group listed (i.e., Irish).

4. After he has completed this tell the child:

   a. to put his chosen cards in the colored envelope

   b. to write the name of the group on the colored envelope with the magic marker

5. Next tell the child to put his unused cards in the large shopping bag or box. (This should be centrally placed or placed near teacher).

6. When the child finishes this sort, have him bring the colored envelope containing his chosen cards to the teacher.

7. The teacher will first check to see that the colored envelope is labeled and then will put a rubber band around it (IMPORTANT).

8. The teacher will place the colored envelope in a large envelope on which she will write the student's name. (All the student's following sorts will be placed in this same envelope).

9. The teacher will then give the child another set of cards and a colored envelope which he will use for his second sort, (i.e., English).

10. This procedure is to be followed by each child through the first 7 sorts -- that is, Irish, English, Negroes, Americans, Italians, Jews, Puerto Ricans.

11. When the child is ready to do his eighth and last sort -- i.e., FRIEND -- the teacher will instruct him to look through the

cards and choose the qualities he would like to have in a friend. (He will then label the colored envelope, etc., just as he has done with the preceding 7 sorts).

12. The teacher can check off on each child's large envelope the name of each group as he hands the sort in. In this way she will have a running tally on where he stands in the sorting.

## II. Ranking

1. When a child has finished all 8 sorts, the teacher will take the child's first 7 labeled color envelopes; that is, all the envelopes except that labeled FRIEND.
2. The teacher will spread the colored envelopes out so that the child can see all the labels.
3. The teacher will ask the child to choose the group he likes best.
4. The teacher will then
    a. remove that colored envelope from the rest
    b. mark the number of his choice (that is, 1)
    c. replace it in the large envelope with the child's name.
5. The teacher will then ask the child what his next favorite group is and proceed as with his first choice.
6. This procedure is to be repeated until the child has ranked all 7 groups.

Note. Try to avoid as much as possible letting the other students hear the way a student is doing the ranking.

## Important

Please check to see that each colored envelope is labeled when the student brings it to you.

Be sure each colored envelope has a rubber band around it before it is placed in the child's large envelope. This will prevent the cards from spilling out and getting mixed together.

Please remember to write the rank number on each colored envelope before returning it to the large envelope during the child's ranking of groups.

## Exhibit B

Upper Grade Unit

Code Sheet for Stereotype Sorting Exercise

Exhibit B

Stereotype Sorting Exercise - Code Sheet

Name: ______________________________

| Control Group: Friend | Subjective Affirmative Attributes: | Subjective Negative Attributes: |
|---|---|---|
| ___Bad | | |
| ___Clean and neat | | |
| ___Dirty | | |
| ___Dumb | | |
| ___Fights a lot | | |
| ___Fun to be with | | |
| ___Good sport | | |
| ___Hard working | | |
| ___Has guts | | |
| ___Honest | | |
| ___Lazy | | |
| ___Money crazy | | |
| ___Nice | | |
| ___Noisy | | |
| ___Not very nice | | |

| Control Group: Friend | Subjective Affirmative Attributes: | Subjective Negative Attributes: |
|---|---|---|
| ___Polite | | |
| ___Poor | | |
| ___Rich | | |
| ___Show-off | | |
| ___Smart | | |
| ___Thinks up good ideas | | |
| ___Tries to take over | | |
| ___Troublemaker | | |
| ___Ugly | | |

Group:

___Bad

___Clean and neat

___Dirty

___Dumb

___Fights a lot

___Fun to be with

___Good sport

___Hard working

___Has guts

___Honest

___Lazy

___Money crazy

___Nice

___Noisy

___Not very nice

___Polite

___Poor

___Rich

___Show-off

___Smart

___Thinks up good ideas

___Tries to take over

___Troublemaker

___Ugly

No. of Positive Attributes: __________

No. of Negative Attributes: __________

Rank Awarded Group: ______________

No. of Attributes Used: ______________

Ranking of Groups:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

Exhibit C

Upper Grade Unit

Sorting Cards for Stereotype Sorting Exercise

| | |
|---|---|
| Nice | Hard-working |
| Show-off | Fights a lot |
| Polite | Honest |
| Troublemaker | Not very nice |
| Noisy | Smart |

| | |
|---|---|
| Poor | Good sport |
| Lazy | Has guts |
| Money crazy | Bad |
| Clean and Neat | Dirty |
| Thinks up good ideas | Tries to take over and run things |

| | |
|---|---|
| Rich | Dumb |
| Fun to be with | Ugly |

Exhibit D

Upper and Lower Grade Units

Children's Perceptions of Minority Groups
As Seen Through Their Drawings

## Exhibit D

## Children's Perceptions of Minority Groups As Seen Through Their Drawings

## Upper Grade and Lower Grade Units

Drawings of:

I.
- A. The child himself (me) at home
- B. The child's own (my) father at work
- C. The child (me) doing something I like to do
- D. The child himself (me) at school
- E. The child himself (me) with my classmates at school

II.
- A. A friend of the child (a friend of mine) at home
- B. The child's friend's (my friend's) father at work
- C. The child's friend (my friend) doing something he (she) likes to do
- D. The child's friend (my friend) at school
- E. The child's friend with his (her) classmates at school

III.
- A. A little Negro boy (girl) at home
- B. A little Negro boy's (girl's) father at work
- C. A little Negro boy (girl) doing something he (she) likes to do
- D. A little Negro boy (girl) at school
- E. A little Negro boy (girl) with his (her) classmates at school

NOTE:

Drawings should be done in sets (e.g. I, II, III). Child might do one or two or more drawings at a time. Drawings can be continuous throughout program; they shouldn't be done all at one sitting. If a child says "doesn't know," encourage him to draw what he thinks it might be.

## Exhibit E

## Upper Grade Unit

## Sentence Completion Instrument

Exhibit E

## Sentence Completion Instrument

Part One

Please write your answers according to the way you feel. This is not a test. Do not worry about spelling. Answer as quickly as you can.

1. Most Negroes ______________________________

2. Most American Indians ______________________________

3. What is a government? ______________________________

4. White Protestants

5. Most Irish people

6. Most Jewish people

7. What is a slum? ______________________________

8. Why do people live in slums? ______________________________

9. Most Chinese ______________________________

10. Who owns cities? ______________________________

11. Most Italians ______________________________

12. What causes race riots? ______________________________

13. What makes a good family? ____________________

14. People from different groups should ____________________

## Part Two

Listed below are six different groups of people, followed by phrases which may describe them. Each phrase is indicated by a letter. On the line after each group of people, write the letters of the phrases that you think describe that group.

Indians ______________________________

Italians ______________________________

Negroes ______________________________

Irish ______________________________

Jews ______________________________

Chinese ______________________________

White Protestants ______________________________

A. Live close together in groups
B. Are unfriendly
C. Are treated badly
D. Are lucky
E. Have bad tempers
F. Are stubborn
G. Are very religious
H. Look different
I. Are smart
J. Are kind
K. Are not very smart
L. Eat different foods
M. Have funny names
N. Like music
O. Live in slums
P. Are very artistic
Q. Are good looking
R. Have different customs
S. Are friendly
T. Are hard workers
U. Are poor
V. Are athletic
W. Try to take over
X. Make trouble
Y. Fight a lot

## Exhibit F

Upper Grade Unit

Code Book for Sentence Completion Instrument

## Exhibit F

## Code Book

### Items

1. Most Negroes
2. Most American Indians
4. White Protestants
5. Most Irish people
6. Most Jewish people
9. Most Chinese
11. Most Italians

A. UNDIFFERENTIATED - GENERALIZING - GLOBAL DESCRIPTIONS
01 nice, helpful, friendly, kind, o.k., respectful
02 kids have Negro friends/like Negroes in general
03 same as anybody else
04 normal except for color
05 different from us
06 some good (friendly), some bad (mean)

B. PHYSICAL ATTRIBUTES - GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS
07 color of skin
08 physical appearance
09 value judgment of appearance
11 good athletes
12 still alive today
13 place of origin, present location
23 roamed plains, hunted
24 lived on reservation

C. CULTURAL - FOOD, RELIGION, LANGUAGE
10 food
14 have different customs, nationality
15 have different beliefs (religion)
16 go to church
17 go to temple
18 believe in God
19 don't believe in God
20 is a religion
21 language
22 nice to children
25 celebrate St. Patrick's Day, wear green
26 very religious
44 similar to Catholics

D. ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS
    30 lots of money, nice homes
    32 laundries and restaurants
    34 live in ghettos, slums

E. PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS, POSITIVE OR NEUTRAL
    27 fun loving, sing and dance
    28 lucky
    29 superstitious
    31 know judo

F. PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS, NEGATIVE
    33 bad tempers
    35 not friendly
    36 dirty, mean
    37 fight, start trouble, cause riots
    38 not liked, cheap
    39 don't like U.S., are Communists
    40 are bad

G. POLITICAL (merged with D)

H. SOCIAL - VICTIMIZED, PUT UPON
    41 are picked on, (present)
    42 angry at/were mistreated by whites (historical)
    43 were slaves

X. OTHER 48

Y. DON'T KNOW 49

Z. NO ANSWER 50

Item

3. What is a Government?

A. PEOPLE
- 01 people who make laws, run country
- 03 a leader or ruler

B. PLACE
- 02 place where laws are made

C. LAWS
- 04 has to do with taxes
- 05 policy, laws, rules
- 06 makes laws, rules people

Item

7. What is a Slum?

A. ECONOMIC
- 01 place where poor people live

B. EXTERNAL CHARACTERISTICS
- 02 dirty, messy
- 03 rundown, old, not taken care of
- 04 crowded
- 05 house
- 06 apartment
- 07 tenement

C. PEOPLE
- 08 Negroes live there
- 09 a bad person lives there

Item

8. Why do People Live in Slums?

A. ECONOMIC
- 01 not enough money
- 03 no jobs available
- 04 can't find anywhere else

B. PERSONAL - NEGATIVE
  02 not enough education
  05 too lazy to get a job
  06 they're bad people
  09 like it there

C. PERSONAL - POSITIVE OR NEUTRAL
  08 to keep warm and healthy

D. SOCIAL - NOT WANTED
  07 not wanted anywhere else

Item

13. What Makes a Good Family?

A. INTERNAL RULES AND PHYSICAL REALITIES
  01 rules, obedience, manners
  02 cleanliness
  06 good house
  07 good food
  08 religion

B. MATERIAL
  03 good job
  04 money
  05 education

C. RELATING
  09 love, caring
  10 sharing, togetherness
  11 kindness, understanding, talking
  12 don't fight
  13 good members

Item

10. Who Owns Cities?

01 the people
02 the government
03 an official (president, etc.)
04 city itself
05 government and people
06 government and official
07 officials and people
08 nobody

09 other
10 don't know
11 no answer

Item

12. What Causes Race Riots?

01 when people don't get along
02 when people make fun of others
03 people treated badly
04 fights
05 teenagers
06 when Negroes form a group
07 mixed races fight
08 kids confused with running race

09 other
10 don't know
11 no answer

Item

14. People from different groups should

01 be friendly, understanding, talk things over
02 get to know each other
03 help each other, be nice and good
04 love each other
05 work together, share, co-operate
06 live together
07 get together
08 get along better, don't fight
09 talk like us

10 other
11 don't know
12 no answer

## Exhibit G

Lower Grade Unit

Interview Manual

## Exhibit G

## Interview Manual

### First Interview with Second-Grade Class: A Few Background Notes

### I. Technique

The interview should be serious, but not strained. The child should know that you are really interested in knowing what his opinions are in a person-to-person manner. However, the child should be kept relaxed and casual in order to have the interviewer gain as much information as possible. Therefore a formal "testing" tone or atmosphere should be avoided.

Try to keep it at a "serious chat" level. If, for example, the child starts to digress, be polite, but lead him back to the topic as quickly as possible without squelching him. On the other hand, if he seems to start tensing up, starts getting nervous about what you might be "aiming" at, or becomes shy about talking, throw in a "relaxing" type question, such as "What's your favorite TV program?" (Ask this question under the section that asks the child if he has ever seen Negroes on TV.) Try in this way to avoid letting the interview seem too pointed by making the student feel that he is being "grilled."

In part II of the interview, most of the children like actually to pick up, touch, or point out their color choices. Also, it seems less confusing to the child if you remove his choices from the pile of crayons as he makes his selections.

### II. Purposes of the Interview

1. To discover how much contact the students have had with Negroes, either personally as in school and/or more indirectly through TV, magazines, etc.

2. To see what impression each contact has made on him -- whether negative or positive. For example, did he think a Negro classmate was nice? If he remembers seeing groups of Negroes on the TV news (in what we would recognize as being marches, demonstrations, etc.) does he think that they seemed to be "nice or good people" doing a "good thing" or vice versa? It may be possible to get an indication of his general impression or even stereotype of Negroes and also to see how much he is already prejudging each Negro he may meet on the basis of that impression. (If the impression is negative, the latter is more likely to be true.)

3. To see how many groups he is already aware of (Question 6), how much he is already seeing individuals he may meet as being members of certain groups rather than simply seeing the individual as just another random individual.

With these general purposes, you will be able to gauge how much to probe a student's answer more deeply -- particularly after you have done an interview or two.

## III. The Interview Itself

### A. Some Ways of Opening the Interview

The introduction to any evaluation exercise should tie in with the course to make the exercise seem more natural and less strange (therefore less frightening) to the student. Introductions should also avoid making the student feel that the teacher wants certain types of answers, for example, "tolerant," love-thy-neighbor type answers. A suggested introduction might be:

> "In class we have been talking about you, things you do, ways you feel. Next in class we will talk about you as a member of a group -- you doing things with other people, and about groups of people. Your class is an example of one group, and the people in your church could be another group. I would like to know how much you already know about different groups of people."

### B. Recording the Interview

The simplest and least distracting way of recording is for the teacher unobtrusively to take notes. This will not, of course, be a verbatim account, but will consist mostly of jotting down phrases. Try to retain the flavor of the child's answer by jotting down his own wording as much as possible -- especially in regard to the "extra" information the child volunteers. For example, when the child answers that he liked a group or thought it was nice because "_________."

Space will be provided on the interview sheet for recording the answers.

## Exhibit H

Lower Grade Unit

Interview Guide: Interview I

## Exhibit H

## Interview Guide: Interview I

A. Introduction (see Interview Manual, Part III)

B. Questions

1. Have you ever had a little Negro friend?

   (If yes, find out how close and frequent the relationship was. For example, Do you play with your friend at home as well as at school? Does he (she) visit your home? How often? Children at this age define friend very loosely. They might, for instance, define a friend as someone they were with once - so be careful!)

2. Have you ever had a Negro neighbor?

   (If yes -- was he (she) an adult or a child? How close was the relationship? Did you and your family think he (she) was nice, or did you like him (her)?)

3. Do your parents know any Negroes? If yes, who are they?

4. Have you ever had a Negro classmate or teacher?

   (If yes, determine whether student has only seen Negro students or teachers in other classes in his school or has had more immediate contact with them.)

5. What Negroes do you know?

   (This may overlap with the questions above, but it was designed to find out Negroes the student may know, but might not classify in above categories; for example, adult Negro friends of parents, laundress, etc.)

6. Negroes might be considered one group. Do you know people or do you have any friends who might belong to other groups?

   (If no, suggest the following:

a. For example, in this country different groups of people go to different kinds of churches.

Do you have any friends or know any people who go to churches different from yours?

b. Everyone who lives in this country came from another country -- either your parents or their parents or grandparents or maybe even your grandparents' parents originally came here from some other country. Do you know what country your family came from?

Do you have friends or do you know people who came from countries other than the one your family came from? Which countries did they come from?)

7. In your neighborhood or downtown just in general, have you seen any other Negroes?

What were they doing?

Did they seem nice?  Not very nice?

What makes you think they were nice (not nice)?

(If answer to general question is no, suggest the following:

Do you ever see them when you go to the grocery store or when you go shopping with your mother and father?

Do you ever see them on the playground?

Do you ever just see them on the street?

What are they doing?

Do they seem nice (not nice)?

8. Do you ever watch TV?

Do you ever see any Negroes on TV?

What are they doing?

(Let the student give either a yes or no answer. In either case, however, suggest to him or ask him before he finishes this question whether or not he has seen):

Negro baseball (or other sport) players?

Were they good?

Negro singers or dancers?

Comedians?

Negroes in stories? (for example "I Spy")

What were they playing in the story?

Were they good (or smart, nice, etc.?)

Negroes on a newscast?

Negro newscaster on Channel 4?

Negroes on the news films showing things that are going on around here and in the whole country?

(If yes, find out what students thought the Negroes were doing and whether the "Negroes seem to be nice" or "Well, did that seem to be a good thing?")

(Without mentioning the word riot, etc., ask "Have you seen groups of Negroes on the news?")

9. Have you ever seen pictures of Negroes in the newspapers or magazines?

What were they doing?

Nice/not nice?

Doing good/bad things?

## Exhibit I

Lower Grade Unit

Interview II

## Exhibit I

## Interview II

Do you like stories? Do you like to have people tell you stories or read stories to you? Let's make up a story together -- the two of us. I'll make up part, and you'll make up part. O.K. We'll call the story "My Back-to-School Party."

### My Back-to-School Party

Now let's say you're going back to school next September. Let's say you're (show picture 1) in a new school, in a pretty new classroom, and you have a lot of new classmates who weren't in your class last year and a new teacher. The teacher is wearing a brown dress and brown shoes. Her name is Miss Kenney, and she is very nice. She asks you what all your names are and reads you a story about an elephant on the first day you are in school.

After school is over, you go home. Your mother asks you all about your first day back in school. You tell her about your new teacher, Miss Kenney, and about the pretty new schoolroom, and about all your new classmates.

Your mother is surprised that you have so many new classmates, and she says, "Would you like to give a little party after school one day -- maybe after school on Friday -- and ask some of your classmates at school to come?"

You say that would be a great idea, and you'd like that very much.

"Well," says your mother, "whom would you like to ask? By the way, who is your very best friend at school?" "_______________." "Well, we'll ask him (her) first."

(Teacher) Now whom in this picture of your new class would you like to ask next? (Show child picture 1 and ask him to rank the order in which he would like to ask the 7 children shown, as for example, "And next you would like to ask 2 -- and then you'd like to ask," etc.)

And then your mother says, "Why, your new classmates all sound so nice -- let's just ask them all. Now that we've decided whom we're going to ask to your party, let's decide what we're going to have to eat at your party. What would you like to eat? What are your favorites?"

(Show child food stencil and fill in his choices. Then give him the sheet and ask him if he would like to color it later and put it in his scrapbook.)

Finally the day of your party arrives, and guess what? (Show child picture 2.) That's right. It's raining. And all your little friends arrive all bundled up in their raincoats and carrying umbrellas so they won't get wet. Your mother says, "Now you all must be thinking up some games you can play indoors." (Show picture 3.)

One little boy wearing a white-and-blue-checked shirt says, "I've brought you a present. I've brought you a jar of grasshoppers which I caught all by myself."

All the children crowd around asking questions. And he then tells how he caught the grasshoppers while he was out fishing with his father and what you are supposed to feed them.

Your mother says, "Why don't we have the __________(favorite food) and the __________(drink) now and then play some games, and then when you're hungry again we'll have the ice cream and cake."

After you all have eaten the __________and__________, your mother says, "Now, can any of you think of a good game that we can play indoors? Whoever thinks of the best game will get a prize." Someone raises a hand and says, "Let's play Let's Pretend. Someone will think of an animal, and everyone else will pretend to be that animal. Then the child who named the animal will decide who acted the animal the very best and he will be the winner and get to name the next animal everyone must imitate."

One little boy yells, "Hurrah, that's a great idea. C'mon everybody." Everyone thinks Let's Pretend is really a great game.

(Now, let's see, which one of the children do you think thought up the game? Show child sheet 3.)

So the little (describe the boy or girl chosen by his or her clothes) is given a prize for thinking up a good game. And then your mother says, "Now let's start to play the game. Why don't I name the first thing you are to imitate? Let me think. Oh, I know. O.K., everyone pretend to be a grasshopper."

But one child chirps the merriest and jumps the highest and your mother says that child is the winner. Now (show sheet again) which one shall we say won the game? 4 And who the next best? 5____.

And everybody at the party plays the Let's Pretend game again and again -- they pretend to be elephants and cowboys and all sorts of things.

After about an hour, your mother says, "My, but you all have been so busy, you must be tired. Why don't you play a quieter game while I go fix the ice cream and cake?"

So the children decide that they will play "Sharing." "What will we share?" asks one little boy. "Why don't we share what we would like to be when we grow up?" (Show picture 4)

So everybody sits down, and one by one the children stand up and say what they would like to be when they grow up. (Show sheet 4 and point out children)

Now this little boy would like to be (get child to give responses). __6__ And this little girl _____(Continue pointing out ______)

Your mother comes back into the room and says, "Oh, children, someone has been very naughty and has slipped in and eaten almost half the cake."

Now which of the children do you think it was? (Show child sheet and get him to give response.)

The children look disappointed at not having any cake, and your mother says quickly, "Well, I'm sure the person who did it is sorry now. But don't worry, I made a very big cake and there's still plenty for everyone. '

So everyone eats lots and lots of ice cream and cake. By then it is getting late so all the children put their raincoats back on and pick up their umbrellas and say what a very nice time they had and go home.

The End

# INTERVIEW II -- ANSWER SHEET

1. Grade ____________________

2. Guests -- Order of preference

3. Thinks up best game ______________________

4. Wins game __________________________

5. Runner-up in game _______________________

6. What would like to be when grown up _____________________

7. Troublemaker__________________

Exhibit I

THINGS I WOULD LIKE TO EAT AT MY PARTY

To Drink:

To Eat:

My Favorite Kind of Ice Cream:

My Favorite Kind of Cake:

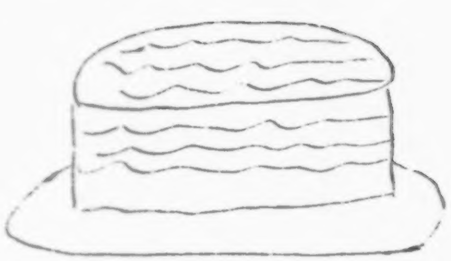
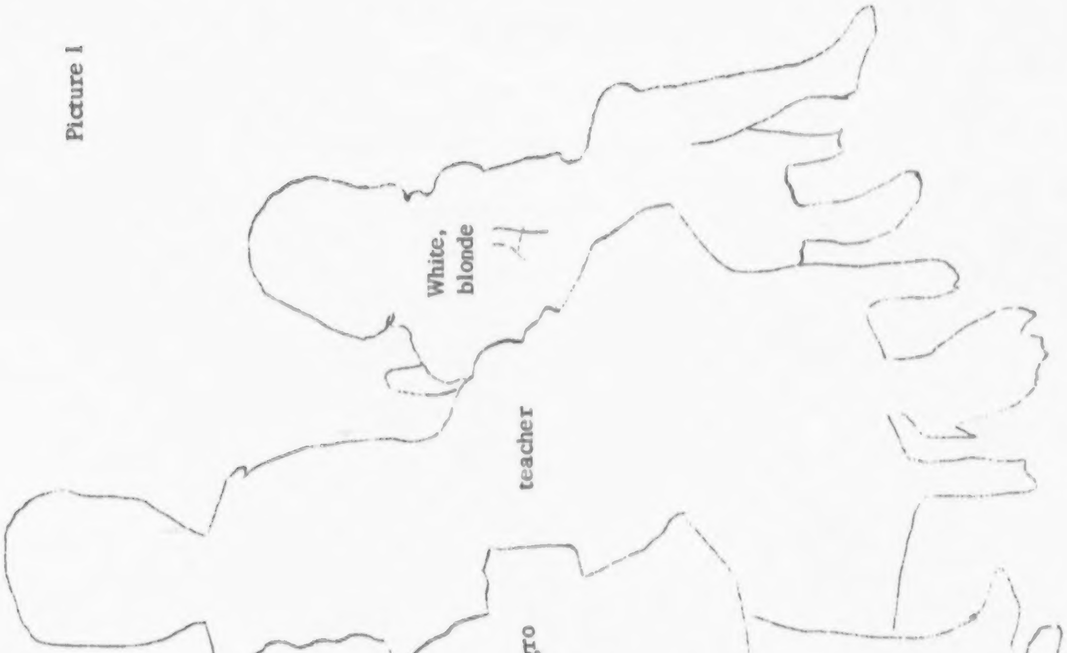


Exhibit J

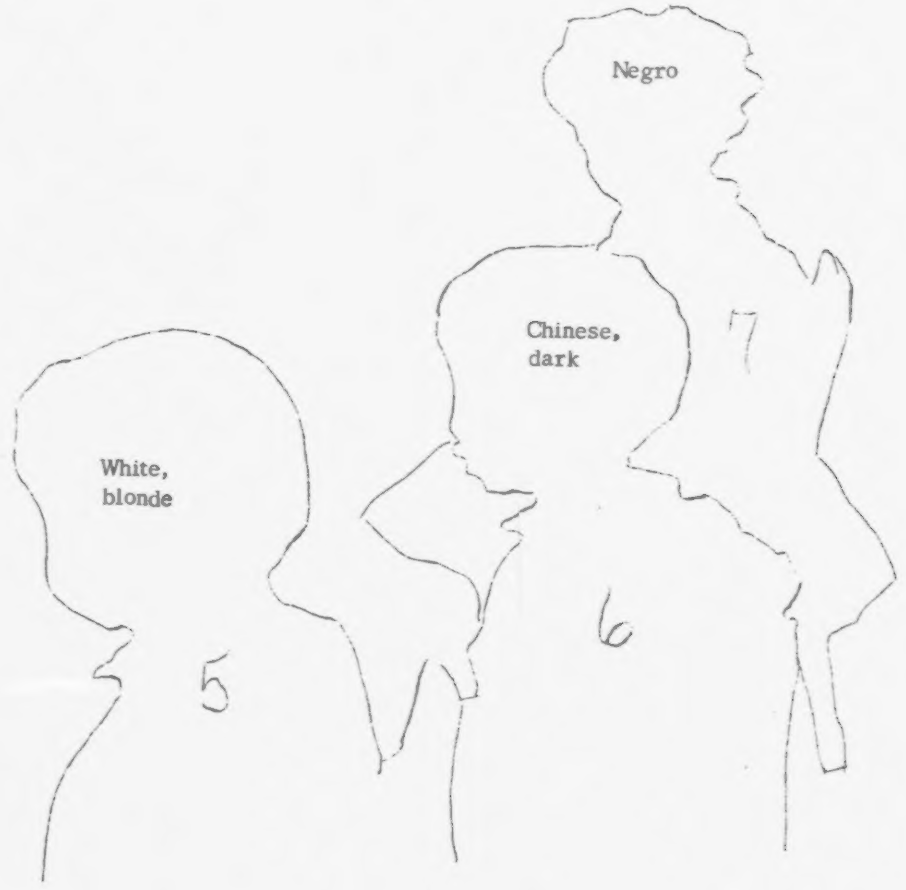
Lower Grade Unit

Recording Sheet for Interview II

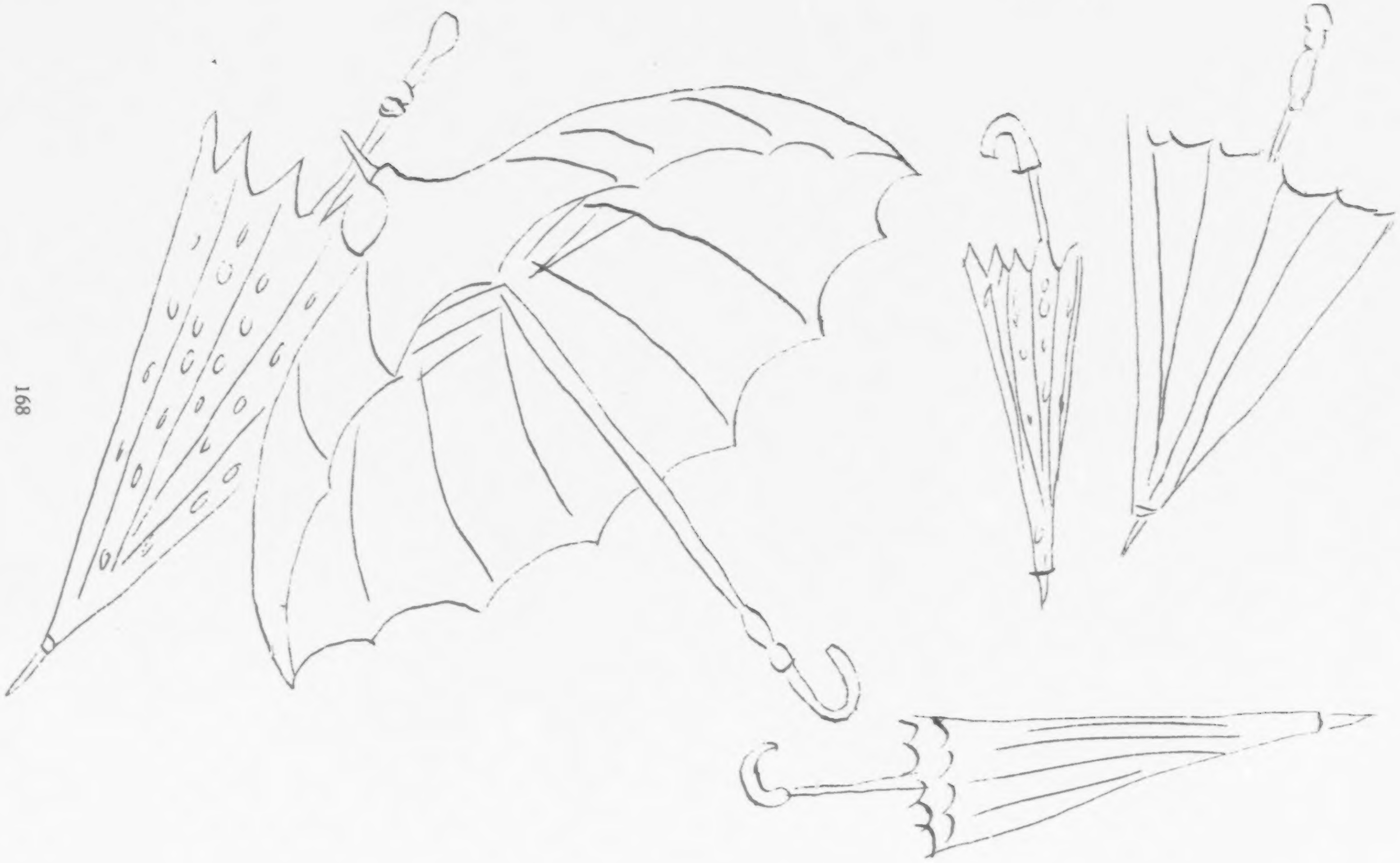
Exhibit J
Recording Sheet
Interview II


Picture I
White, blonde
4
teacher
Negro
3
White, blonde
2
White, dark-brown hair
1

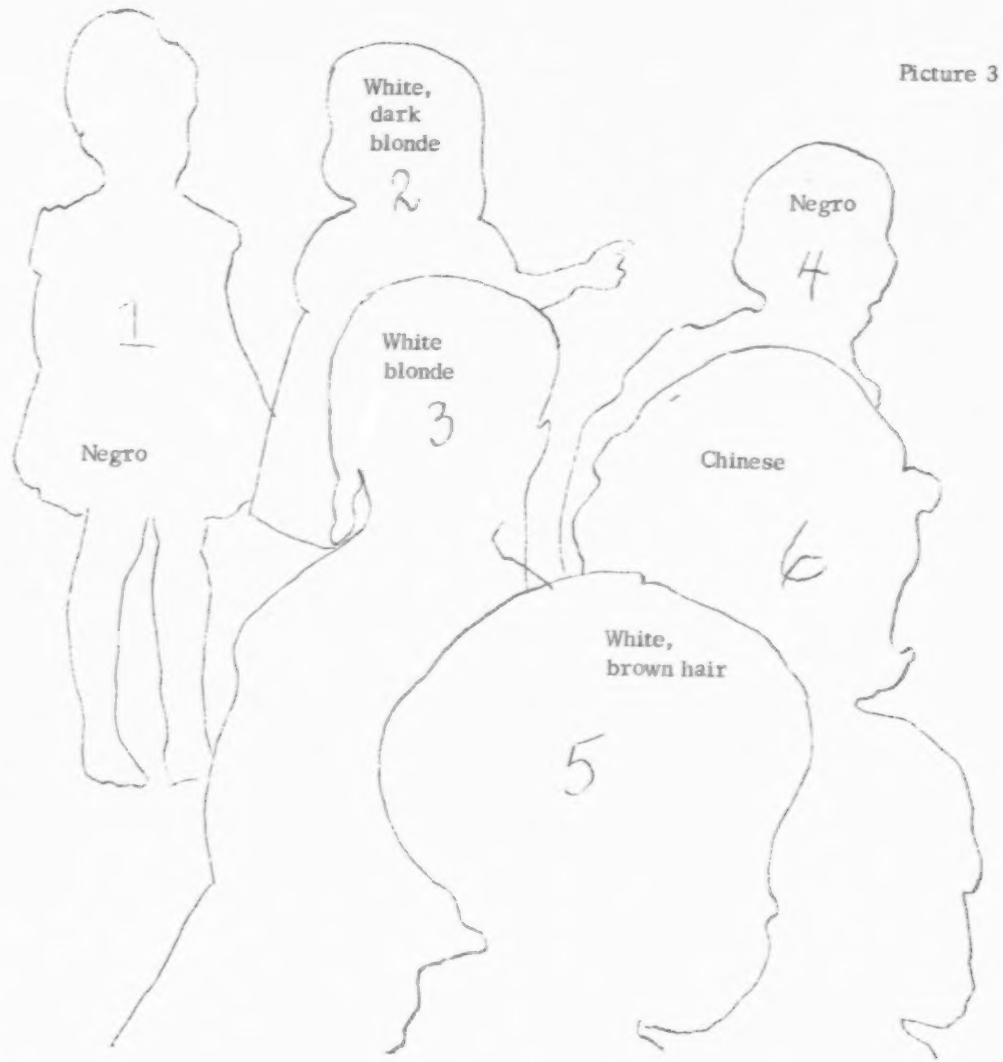
Picture 1


Negro
7
Chinese, dark
6
White, blonde
5

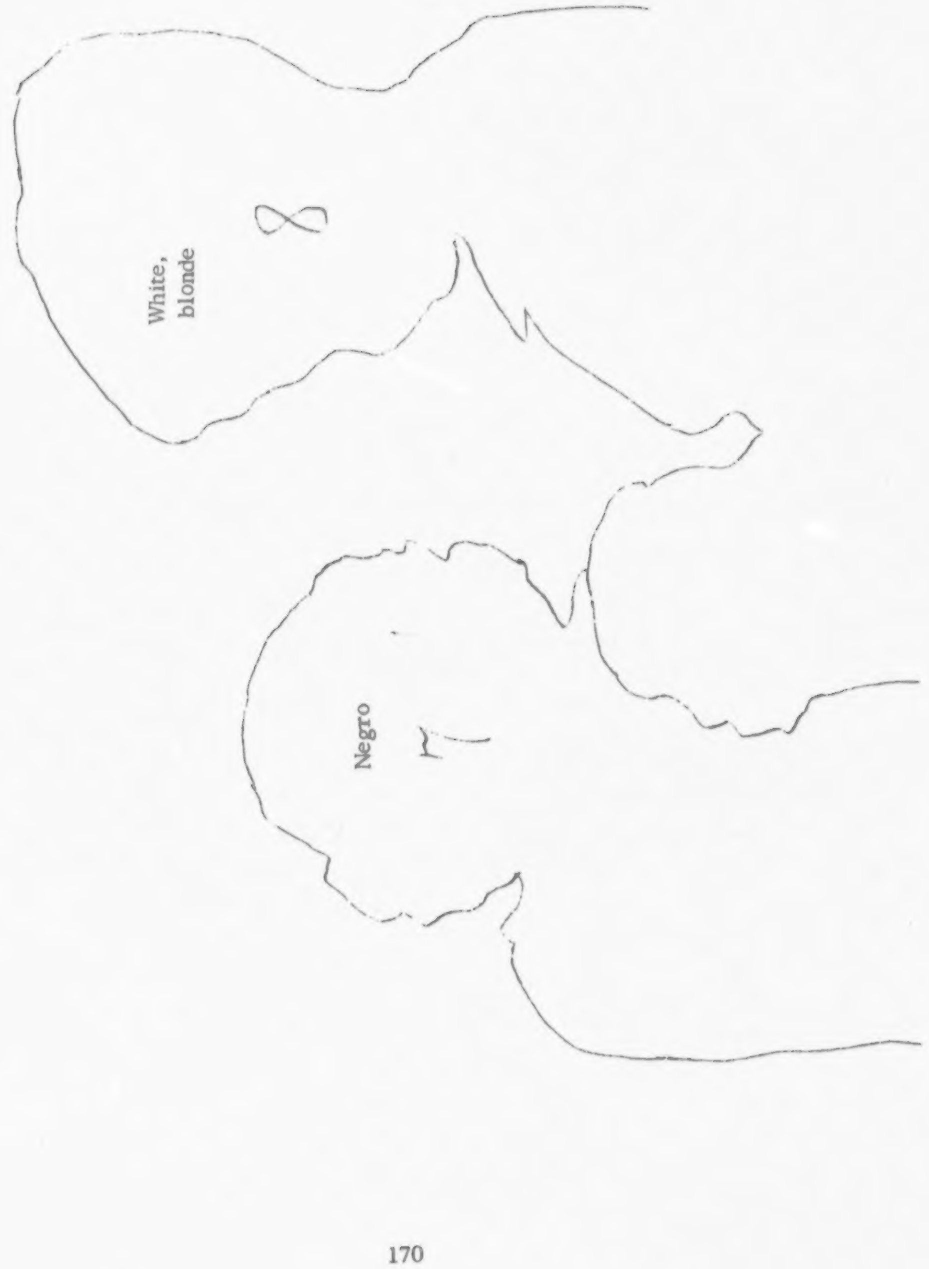
Picture 2



Picture 3


White, dark blonde
2
1
White blonde
3
Negro
Negro
4
Chinese
6
White, brown hair
5

Picture 3


White, blonde
8
Negro
7

Picture 4

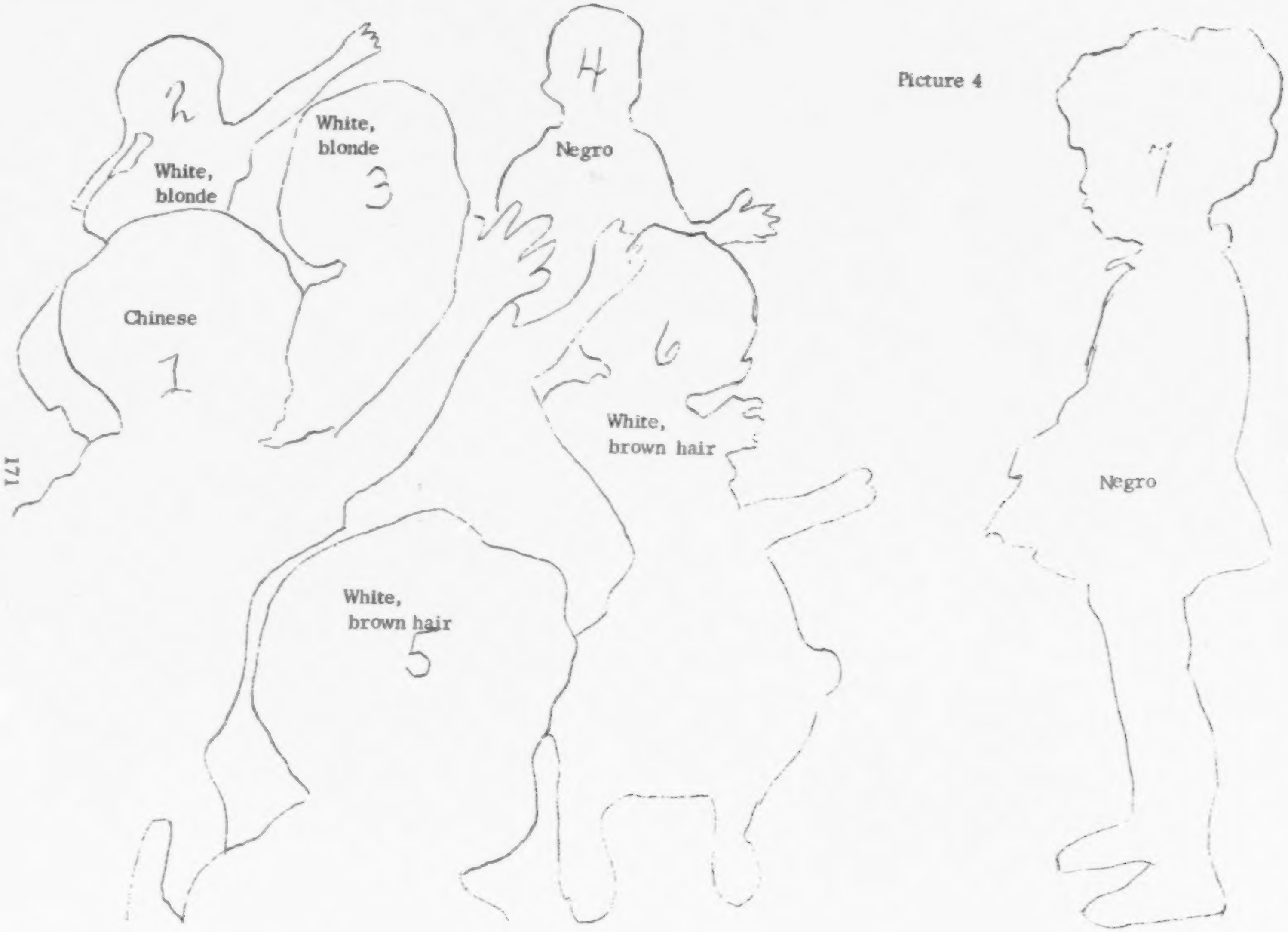

2
White,
blonde
White,
blonde
3
4
Negro
Chinese
1
6
White,
brown hair
White,
brown hair
5
7
Negro

Exhibit K

Lower Grade Unit

Interview III

## Exhibit K

## Interview III

Materials:

Seven crayons for the child to choose from -- red, yellow, blue, orange, green, brown, black (scatter black and brown among others).

Introduction:

"You'll be drawing lots of pictures for the scrapbook you will be making about yourself soon. Do you like to draw?"

Questions:

1. What do you like to draw best? Indoor or outdoor scenes?
2. Which of these is your favorite color?
3. What do you use it for?
4. What is your next favorite (2) color?
5. What do you use it for?

Continue with questions 4 and 5 until all seven colors have been ranked.

Color Ranking

| | Color | Use |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | | |
| 2. | | |
| 3. | | |
| 4. | | |
| 5. | | |
| 6. | | |
| 7. | | |

## C. SOME PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

## C. SOME PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

By way of setting a general frame of reference for this section dealing with the data obtained by means of the devices and procedures described in the preceding section, it must be stressed that the summer program was viewed as a tryout period rather than as a time of active evaluation. We were essentially interested in whether the ideas we had about evaluation could work in actual practice. If we were able to collect some helpful evaluative data, we considered it good fortune rather than good planning. Just as the various curriculum units at both the upper- and lower-grade levels were being given field trials, so were the evaluation procedures.

The one exception to this orientation for interpreting the work of the summer is the information that was gathered in three Medford (Massachusetts) schools during the spring of 1967. Here we did have pre- and post-audit data which we attempted to examine in detail in order to detect what changes in students' perceptions and concepts might have taken place as a result of the use of the project units.

For ease of interpretation, we will present results according to the sequence of evaluation procedures already described.

### Upper Grade Unit

1. Stereotype-Sorting Exercise. Nineteen children completed a number of sorts, each sort matched to a designated group of people. The results for the individual children are shown in Table 1. It should be noted that not all children completed

the same sorts. This obviously limits any conclusions which may be drawn from the existing data, but even with these restrictions on interpretation a number of trends may be discerned in the data, along with several promising questions which may be profitably followed up in next year's curriculum trials.

Table II reports the number of sorts completed within the total group of 19 children and the total number of affirmative and negative attributes broken down into the two subgroups described earlier: the clearly differentiated, and the one containing the two adjectives which could carry affirmative or negative connotation depending on the frame of reference, this group being referred to as undifferentiated.

Since the number of sorts varies widely from group to group, Table III has been prepared to show the percentage of total response which is affirmative and negative for the total number of different groups to which the children sorted.

An inspection of Table III shows that the three groups with the highest percentage of assigned negative attributes are Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and Jews in order of descending magnitude. It will be recalled that the sorting exercise included a ranking of groups according to order of preference. Of the 19 children who provided the data being presented, eight also ranked their groups in order of liked or favored groups. Table IV lists the order of group preference for these eight children. The finding that Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and Jews are perceived with a higher degree of negative attribution appears to be further reinforced by the ranking data. In almost every case, Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and Jews fall just at the median rank or below it.

While no strong conclusions may be drawn from the present data, lacking as they do appropriate controls for validity and reliability, there does seem to be a visible trend in the direction of negative stereotyping toward certain racial, ethnic, and cultural groups among these fifth-grade children. Because of limited time, the analysis of these data has been confined to group findings. If further resources should become available, it would be interesting to do some individual case studies to see if there are relationships between "own group" membership and negative stereotyping of other groups.

2. Children's Drawings. Too few drawings were obtained from the upper-grade children to warrant any evaluation. Teachers reported, however, that children appeared to be willing to do these drawings, so that from the standpoint of student co-operation, drawings even with the older children may prove to furnish valuable information regarding their perceptions of themselves, others, and their home and school environment.

3. Sentence-Completion Measure. The analysis of data yielded by the pre- and post-auditing of the students in the three schools in Medford is based on the following population of students:

| School | | Number |
|---|---|---|
| Osgood | | 25 |
| Brooks | | 23 |
| Columbus | | 27 |
| | Total | 75 |

Exhibit F gives a detailed breakdown of responses grouped in the larger categories which will be reported in Tables V through VIII. These tables are based on coded responses to Items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 9, and 11 which concern various ethnic, racial, and cultural groups. For ease of interpretation, the titles of the broad categories will be repeated here:

A. Undifferentiated--Generalizing--Global Descriptions

B. Physical Attributes-Geographical Factors

C. Cultural--Food, Religion, Language

D. Economic Characteristics

E. Personal Characteristics, Positive or Neutral

F. Personal Characteristics, Negative

G. Political--merged with D

H. Social-Victimized, put-upon

Another way of looking at the Medford school data is by way of the graphs which appear as Figures 1-7, covering the items dealing with selected groups of people, and Figures 8-11, which report on responses to the items concerned with the children's conceptualizations regarding government, the problem of slums, and the good family.

To summarize the results briefly, the following conclusions may be drawn from the tabled and graphed data over all items in the sentence-completion instrument.

In regard to selected groups of people, there were:

1. A slight decrease in undifferentiated, global responses of the type "same as everybody else" shows up in two schools (Brooks and Osgood). (Table V)

2. A marked increase in all three schools in the number of responses which emphasize physical attributes, geographical factors, cultural characteristics such as food, religion, and language. It probably is safe to say that this change is directly attributable to instruction. (Table VI)

3. In two schools (Columbus and Brooks) there was an increase in responses reflecting economic characteristics and in one school (Columbus) a substantial increase in positive or neutral personal characteristics. (Table VII)

4. In one school (Osgood) there was a notable decrease in negative personal characteristics. (Table VII)

5. In one school (Columbus) there was a marked increase in perceptions of minority groups as being socially victimized. At the same school there was a sizable increase in the number of positive personal characteristics mentioned. (Table VIII)

6. Two schools (Osgood and Columbus) show greater effect of the course experience than does one school (Brooks) over all minority group responses. (All Tables)

With respect to the items covering general topics and concepts, the following may be said:

7. Government is primarily viewed in terms of concrete reference to people, places, and laws rather than to processes or functions. This continued to be true after the completion of the unit. While concrete operational thinking is characteristic of this age group, it would be worth while to re-evaluate the content of the unit to determine whether this type of idea is being fostered. (Figure 8)

8. Law becomes a more dominant reference for government at two schools (Osgood and Columbus). (Figure 8)

9. An increase in social processes as reasons for slum dwelling is matched with a decrease in personal characteristics as reasons. This possibly reflects a greater understanding of the wide range of social processes. (Figure 10)

A beginning was made in analysis of the responses to Part II of the sentence-completion measure based on all three school populations. This part consisted of six different groups of people to which the students were to apply characterizing phrases from a given list. These phrases lent themselves to the same category system which had been developed for the open-ended items in Part I. The question guiding this analysis was: "Does the verbal complexity of attitude structures tell us anything about the processing of new related information?" More specifically, we were asking about the relationship between the pre-course use of adjective phrases in terms of number to describe various groups and the change in the level of production to complete the open-ended items at the beginning and the end of the course program. In order to account for a ceiling effect, logarithmic values of the change proportion were used. A graphical representation of the data showed a fairly pronounced negative correlation between the number of adjective phrases used and the log of the change ratio.

There are a number of possible and very tentative interpretations. First, for this finding we may consider high articulation of attitude (use of adjective phrases) to be reflective of high stereotyping, in which case we would expect high levels of adjective use to reflect more prejudiced and closed attitudes. A second explanation would be that descriptive complexity is a cover for high anxiety or for any other factor which might interfere with information processing. A third possibility is the relationship between adjective usage and actual quality of knowledge content. In other words, what is the relationship between amount of verbal description and the individual's degree of information?

While this analysis is at best a promising beginning, it should be possible to explore the area in the future by a more detailed analysis of the content of the individual student's responses and more precise measurement of his tolerance for differences from himself. In the section on directions for further evaluation, a proposed Acceptance and Rejection of Differences Scale will be described.

Lower Grade Unit

1. Oral Interviews. (a) "Debriefing". These interviews were tried out at the Heath School in Brookline with six children ranging in age from six to nine years, both boys and girls. As Coles mentioned in Children of Crisis, young children are often uninterested in conversation. They want to be on the move and are bored at the prospect of hearing words and being expected to use them. It is not that they don't have ideas and feelings or a need to express them to others. It is simply that -- as one eight-year-old boy told him -- "Talking is okay, but I don't like to do it all the time the way grown-ups do; I guess you have to develop the habit." [4]

We did not fare much better than was to be expected in the light of the foregoing comment. The first draft of the interview was entirely too long and had too many abstractions the children could not deal with seriously. A second draft appears somewhat more promising, since it is based on the developing ability

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[4] Coles, op. cit. p.41.

## Table I

### Results of Sorting Exercise - Upper Grade Level

| Groups | Students | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | A | | B | | C | | D | |
| | + | - | + | - | + | - | + | - |
| Friend | 8/2 | 3/0 | | | | | 9/1 | 1/0 |
| Americans | 9/1 | 2/1 | | | | | | |
| Catholics | 9/1 | 2/1 | 1/0 | 0 | 5/2 | 0 | 5/1 | 1/0 |
| Chinese | 9/1 | 3/1 | 1/0 | 0 | | | 1/0 | 4/0 |
| English | | | | | | | | |
| Indians | 2/1 | 9/1 | 0 | 1/0 | 1/0 | 5/2 | 3/0 | 10/1 |
| Irish | 8/1 | 3/1 | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | 6/2 | 6/1 | 7/2 |
| Italians | 8/1 | 3/1 | 1/0 | 0 | | | 2/1 | 5/1 |
| Jews | 0/1 | 9/2 | | | | | 4/1 | 1/0 |
| Negroes | 5/0 | 3/1 | 0/1 | 0 | 0/1 | 8/1 | 1/0 | 6/1 |
| Portugese | | | 1/0 | 0 | | | | |
| Puerto Ricans | 2/0 | 10/1 | 0 | 1/0 | | | 5/1 | 4/0 |
| White Protestants | 9/1 | 3/1 | 0/1 | 0 | 7/2 | 2/1 | 7/2 | 8/1 |

+ Positive Attributes (Number to the left of slant line indicates total with the exception of rich and nice; number to the right indicates selection of rich and/or nice)

- Negative Attributes (Number to the left indicates total with the exception of not very nice and poor; number to the right indicates selection of not very nice and poor

Blank space indicates No Sort

Table I Continued

| Groups | Students | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | E | | F | | G | | H | | I | |
| | + | - | + | - | + | - | + | - | + | - |
| Friend | | | | | 7/2 | 0 | | | | |
| Americans | | | | | | | 8/2 | 0 | | |
| Catholics | 10/1 | 0 | | | | | | | | |
| Chinese | 10/1 | 0/1 | | | 7/2 | 0 | | | 8/1 | 8/2 |
| English | | | 9/2 | 0 | | | 8/2 | 0 | | |
| Indians | 3/0 | 10/1 | | | 7/2 | 0 | | | 5/2<br>8/1 | 10/1<br>9/2 |
| Irish | 9/2 | 0 | 8/2 | 3/1 | 7/2 | 0 | 1/0 | 11/1 | 9/2 | 6/1 |
| Italians | 9/2 | 0 | | | 7/2 | 2/0 | 2/1 | 2/2 | 8/2 | 10/2 |
| Jews | 8/1 | 4/0 | | | 7/2 | 0 | | | 8/1 | 9/2 |
| Negroes | 6/1 | 3/1 | | | 7/2 | 0 | 1/0 | 11/1 | 9/2 | 11/2 |
| Portugese | 9/2 | 0 | | | 7/2 | 0 | | | 8/1 | 9/2 |
| Puerto Ricans | 9/1 | 3/1 | | | 7/2 | 0 | | | 7/0 | 8/1 |
| White Protestants | 6/0 | 7/1 | | | 7/2 | 0 | | | 9/2 | 7/2 |

Table I Continued

| Groups | Students |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | J |  | K |  | L |  | M |  |
|  | + | - | + | - | + | - | + | - |
| Friend |  |  |  |  | 7/1 | 0 |  |  |
| Americans |  |  |  |  | 7/2 | 3/0 | 8/2 | 3/0 |
| Catholics | 3/1 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Chinese | 0/1 | 1/1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| English |  |  |  |  | 6/2 | 0 | 4/2 | 2/0 |
| Indians | 1/0 | 2/1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Irish | 1/1 | 2/1 | 4/1 | 2/1 | 4/1 | 0 | 5/2 | 0 |
| Italians |  |  | 6/1 | 1/0 | 7/1 | 0 | 6/1 | 0/1 |
| Jews |  |  |  |  | 3/1 | 1/1 | 3/1 | 5/1 |
| Negroes |  |  | 5/1 | 0 | 3/0 | 7/2 | 2/0 | 4/1 |
| Portugese |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Puerto Ricans | 0 | 2/2 | 2/0 | 1/0 | 1/0 | 3/2 | 3/0 | 2/1 |
| White Protestants | 2/1 | 1/0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table I Continued

| Groups | Students |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | N |  | O |  | P |  | Q |  |
|  | + | - | + | - | + | - | + | - |
| Friend |  |  | 8/1 | 0 | 9/1 | 0/1 | 2/1 | 3/1 |
| Americans |  |  | 9/1 | 7/1 | 8/1 | 1/0 | 7/2 | 1/1 |
| Catholics | 8/2 | 6/1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Chinese |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| English |  |  | 9/2 | 0 | 3/2 | 0 | 3/1 | 1/1 |
| Indians | 8/2 | 10/2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Irish | 9/2 | 8/2 | 9/1 | 0 | 0 | 3/1 | 4/1 | 2/1 |
| Italians | 9/2 | 8/2 | 8/2 | 1/0 | 8/2 | 2/0 | 4/2 | 2/0 |
| Jews | 8/1 | 9/1 | 8/1 | 0 | 2/0 | 11/2 | 4/1 | 0/1 |
| Negroes | 8/2 | 6/1 | 9/1 | 0 | 0 | 5/1 | 6/1 | 2/1 |
| Portugese |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Puerto Ricans | 8/2 | 5/2 | 8/2 | 2/0 | 0 | 10/2 | 4/1 | 1/1 |
| White Protestants | 8/2 | 8/2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table I Continued

| Groups | Students | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | R | | S | |
| | + | - | + | - |
| Friend | 7/1 | 0 | 9/2 | 0 |
| Americans | 8/1 | 3/0 | 9/2 | 0 |
| Catholics | | | | |
| Chinese | | | | |
| English | 0 | 11/1 | 7/2 | 0 |
| Indians | | | | |
| Irish | 7/1 | 0 | 10/2 | 0 |
| Italians | 8/2 | 0 | 9/2 | 0 |
| Jews | 1/0 | 11/1 | 9/2 | 2/0 |
| Negroes | 8/1 | 0 | 9/2 | 0 |
| Portugese | | | | |
| Puerto Ricans | 6/2 | 0 | 9/2 | 0 |
| White Protestants | | | | |

## Table II

### Total of Affirmative and Negative Attributes

N = 19

| Group | No. of Sorts | Affermative<br>Differentiated/ | Undiff. | Negative<br>Differentiated/ | Undiff. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Friend | 9 | 63 | 12 | 7 | 2 |
| Americans | 9 | 73 | 15 | 20 | 3 |
| Catholic | 7 | 41 | 8 | 9 | 2 |
| Chinese | 7 | 36 | 6 | 16 | 5 |
| English | 9 | 49 | 15 | 14 | 2 |
| Irish | 19 | 101 | 23 | 53 | 14 |
| Italians | 16 | 102 | 24 | 36 | 9 |
| Jews | 13 | 65 | 13 | 62 | 11 |
| Negroes | 17 | 79 | 15 | 66 | 13 |
| Portuguese | 4 | 25 | 5 | 9 | 2 |
| Puerto Ricans | 16 | 71 | 13 | 52 | 13 |
| White Protestants | 9 | 61 | 13 | 36 | 8 |

## Table III

### Percentage of Total Attributes to Each Sort Group

### Classified Affirmative and Negative

| Group | No. of Sorts | Percentage of Affirmative Attributes | Percentage of Negative Attributes |
|---|---|---|---|
| Friend | 9 | 89.2 | 10.8 |
| Americans | 9 | 79.3 | 20.7 |
| Catholic | 7 | 81.3 | 18.7 |
| Chinese | 7 | 74.8 | 25.2 |
| English | 9 | 79.2 | 20.8 |
| Irish | 19 | 66.5 | 33.5 |
| Italians | 16 | 73.0 | 27.0 |
| Jews | 13 | 56.2 | 43.8 |
| Negroes | 17 | 52.6 | 47.4 |
| Portuguese | 4 | 73.6 | 26.4 |
| Puerto Ricans | 16 | 54.5 | 45.5 |
| White Protestants | 19 | 64.8 | 35.2 |

Table IV

Ranking of Groups According to Order of Preference

| Student | Like Best 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Like Least 10 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| M | Americans | Italians | Irish | English | Negroes | Jews | Puerto Ricans | | | |
| L | Irish | Italians | English | Americans | Jews | Negroes | Puerto Ricans | | | |
| K | Negroes | Italians | Irish | Puerto Ricans | | | | | | |
| E | Italians | Indians | Portuguese | Chinese | White Protestants | Negroes | Irish | Catholics | Jews | Puerto Ricans |
| P | Americans | English | Italians | Irish | Jews | Puerto Ricans | Negroes | | | |
| Q | Americans | Puerto Ricans | English | Negroes | Irish | Jews | Italians | | | |
| R | Americans | Irish | Jews | Puerto Ricans | Italians | Negroes | English | | | |
| O | Irish | Americans | English | Negroes | Jews | Italians | Puerto Ricans | | | |

Table V

Change in Undifferentiated and Global

Descriptions (A)

Number of Responses

| School | Pre | Post | Diff | % Change |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Columbus | 74 | 77 | +3 | +4 |
| Brooks | 64 | 58 | -6 | -9 |
| Osgood | 51 | 42 | -9 | -18 |

Table VI

Change in Factual Content of Responses

(B + C)

Number of Responses

| School | Pre | Post | Diff | % Change |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Columbus | 120 | 133 | +13 | +11 |
| Brooks | 97 | 102 | +5 | +5 |
| Osgood | 103 | 125 | +22 | +21 |

## Table VII

## Change in Socio-Economic Characterizations

## (D+E+F)

Number of Responses

| School | Pre | Post | Diff | % Change |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Columbus | 26 | 33 | +7<br>D + 1<br>E + 7<br>F - 1 | +26 |
| Brooks | 25 | 24 | -1<br>D + 4<br>E - 6<br>F + 1 | -4 |
| Osgood | 27 | 19 | -8<br>D - 1<br>E - 1<br>F - 6 | -26 |

## Table VIII

## Change in Perceived Passivity

## of Minority Groups (H)

| School | Pre | Post | Diff |
|---|---|---|---|
| Columbus | 3 | 10 | +7 |
| Brooks | 7 | 5 | -2 |
| Osgood | 12 | 5 | -7 |

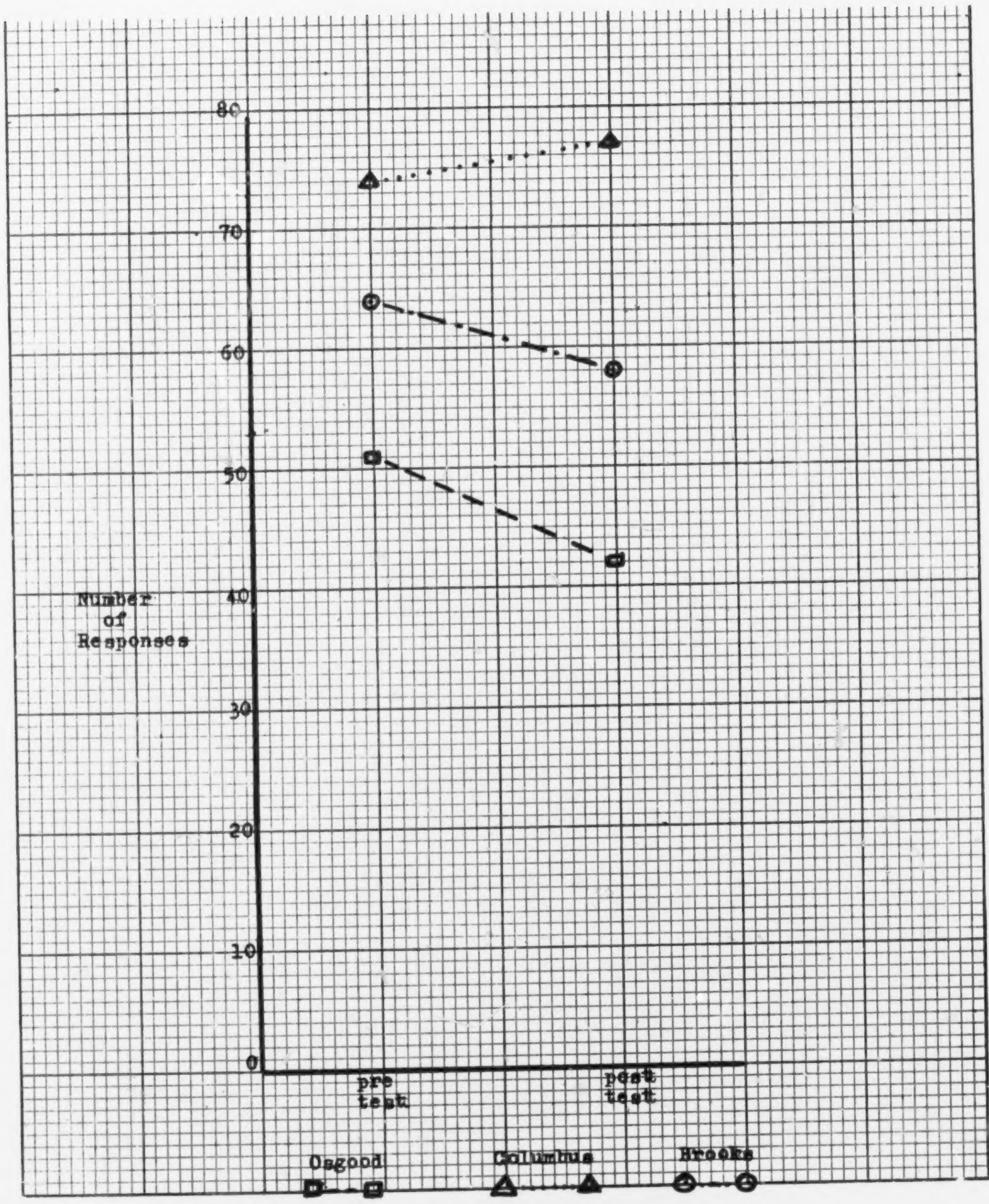

Figure 1. Change in undifferentiated and global descriptions of minority groups (A) by school

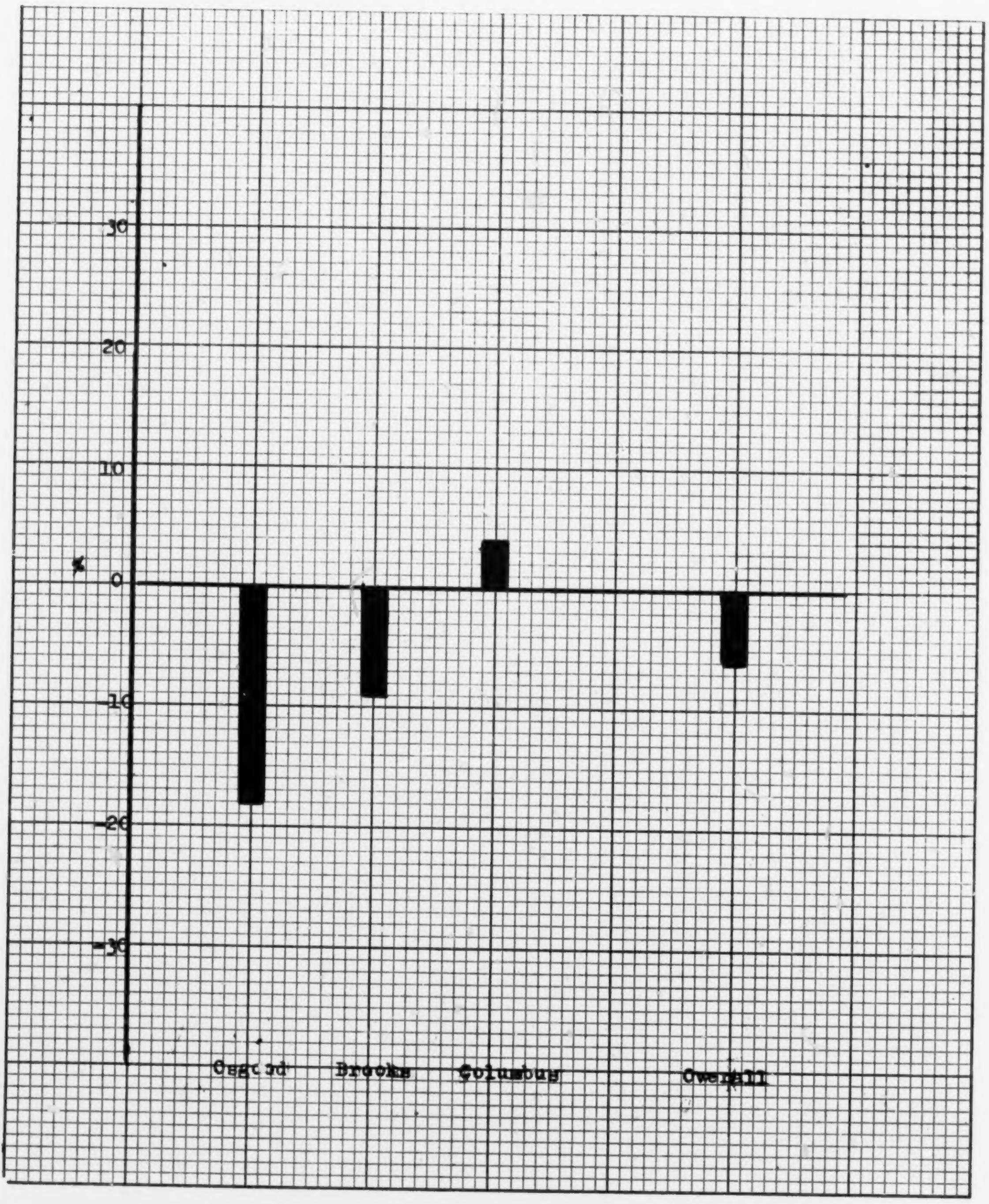

Figure 2. Percentage change in global and undifferentiated descriptions of minority groups (by school and overall)

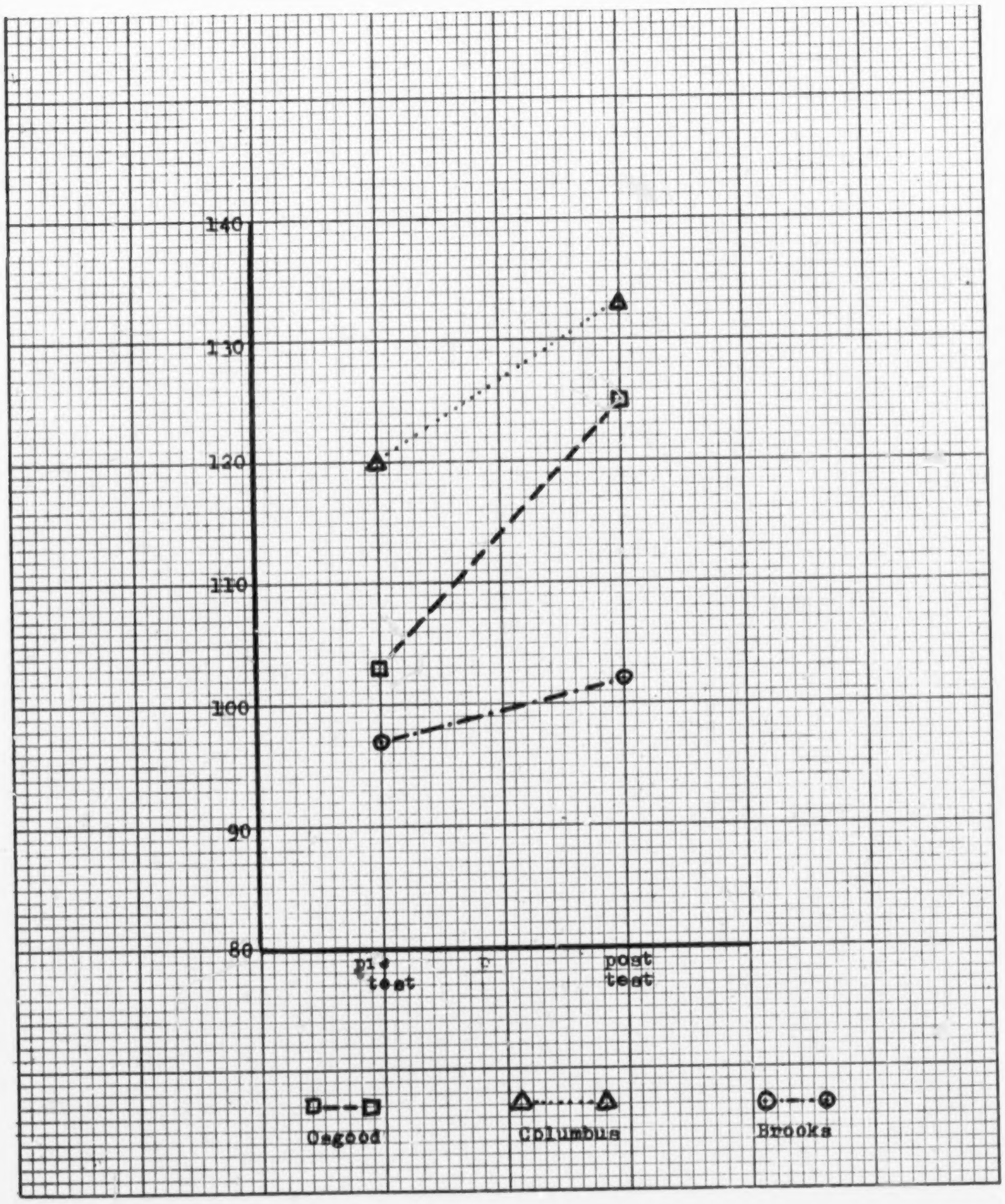

Figure 3. Change in factual content of responses regarding minorities (B & C) by school

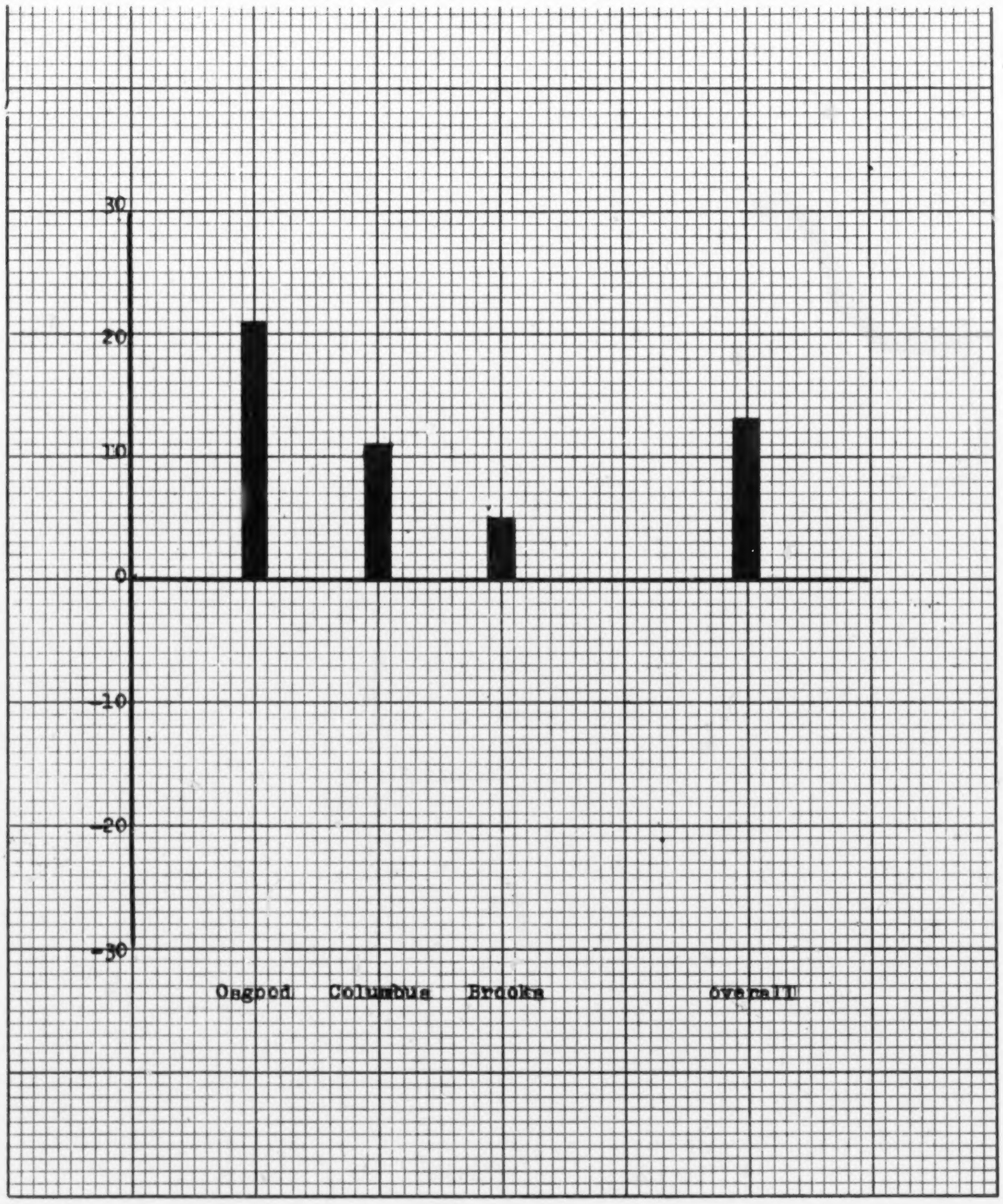

Figure 4. Percentage change in factual content of responses regarding minorities (B & C) by school and overall

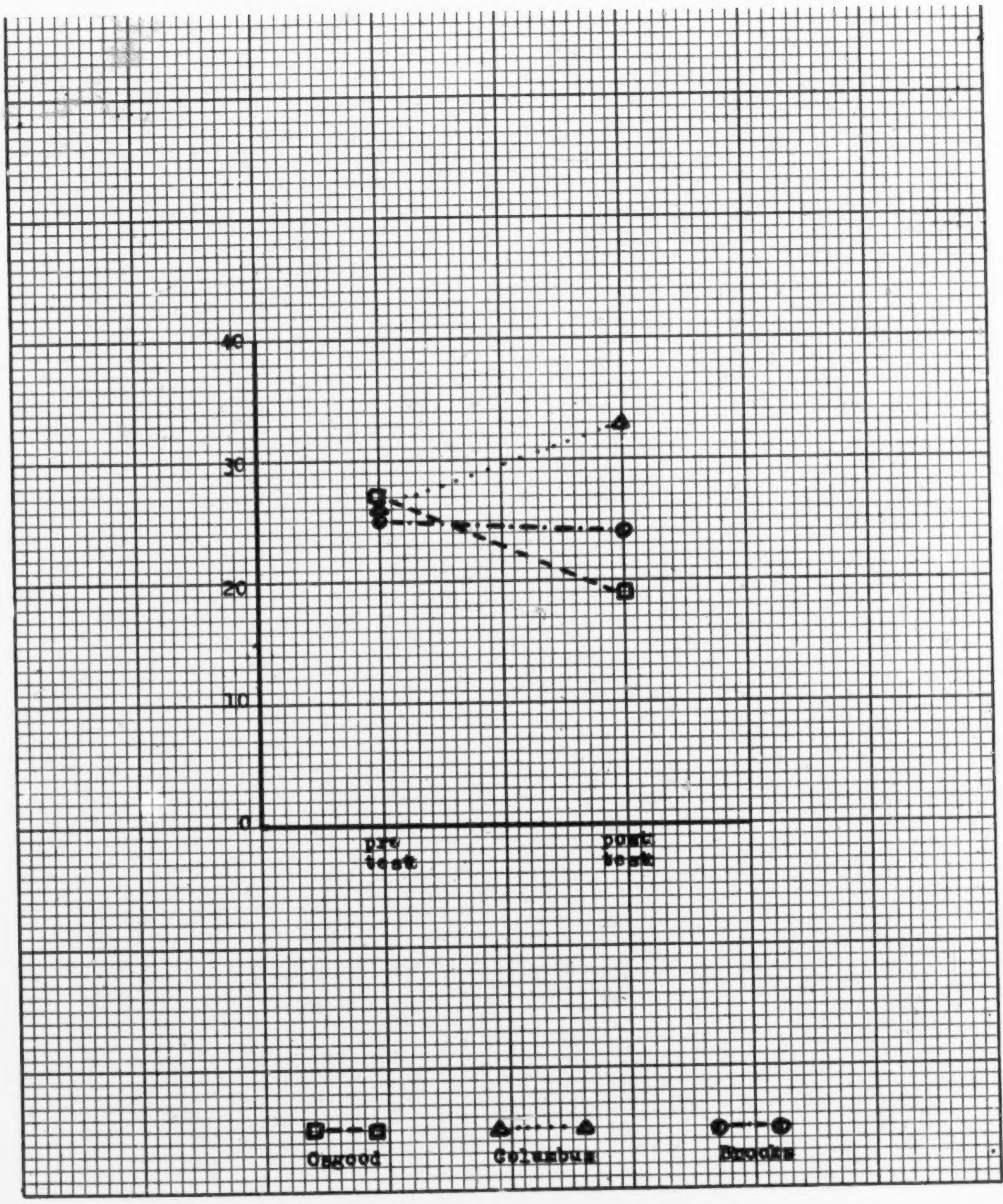

Figure 5. Change in socio-economic characterizations of minorities (D, E & F) by school

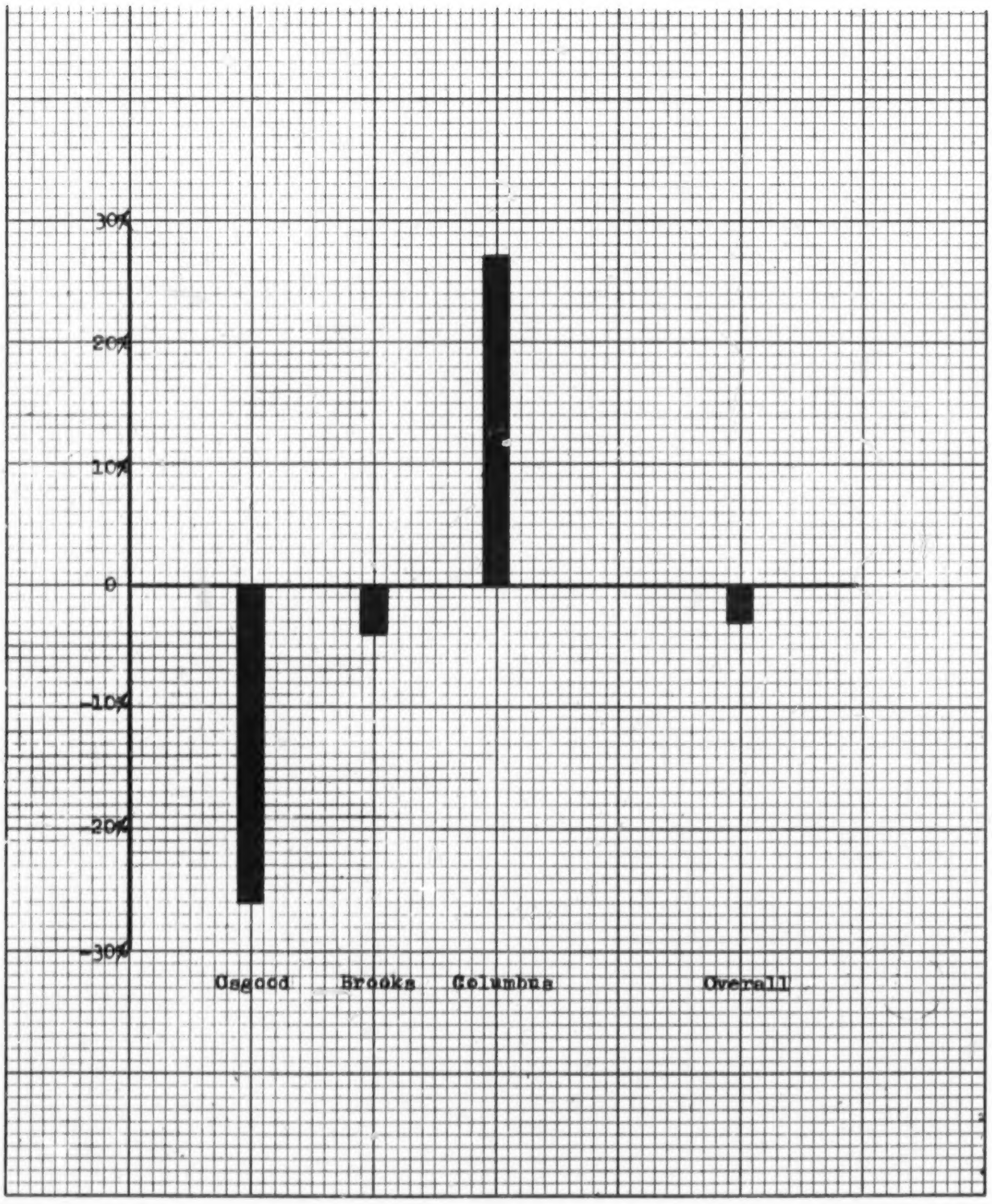

Figure 6. Percentage change in socio-economic characterization of minorities (D+E+F) by school and overall

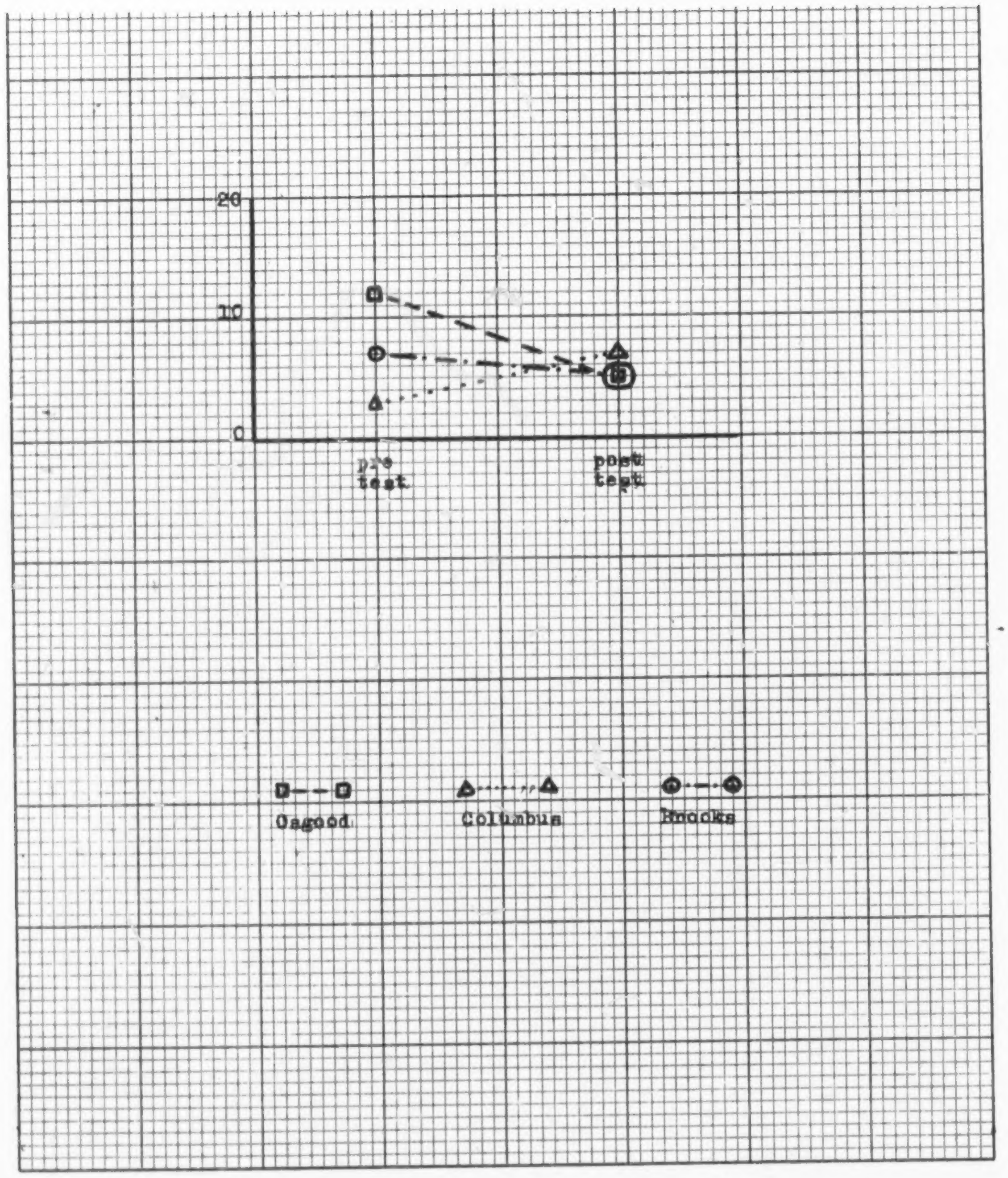

Figure 7. Change in perceived social passivity of minority groups (H) by school

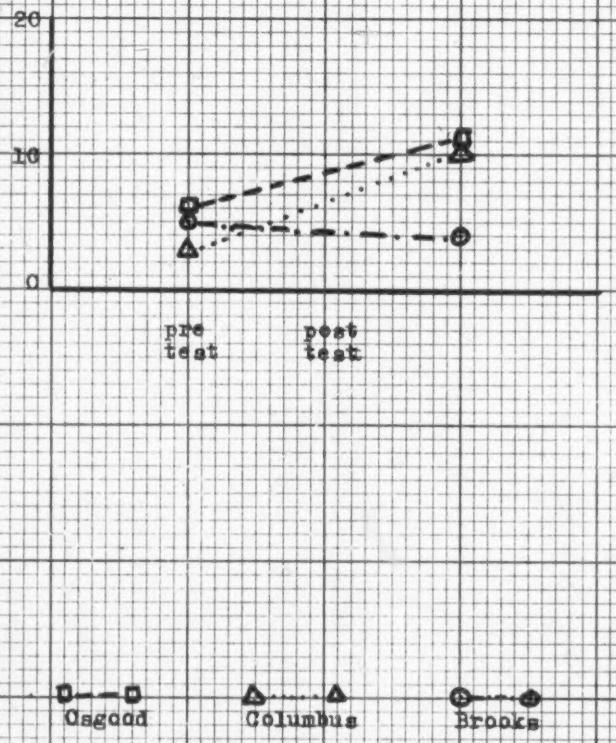

Figure 8. Changes in use of laws as reference for government (Item 3) by school

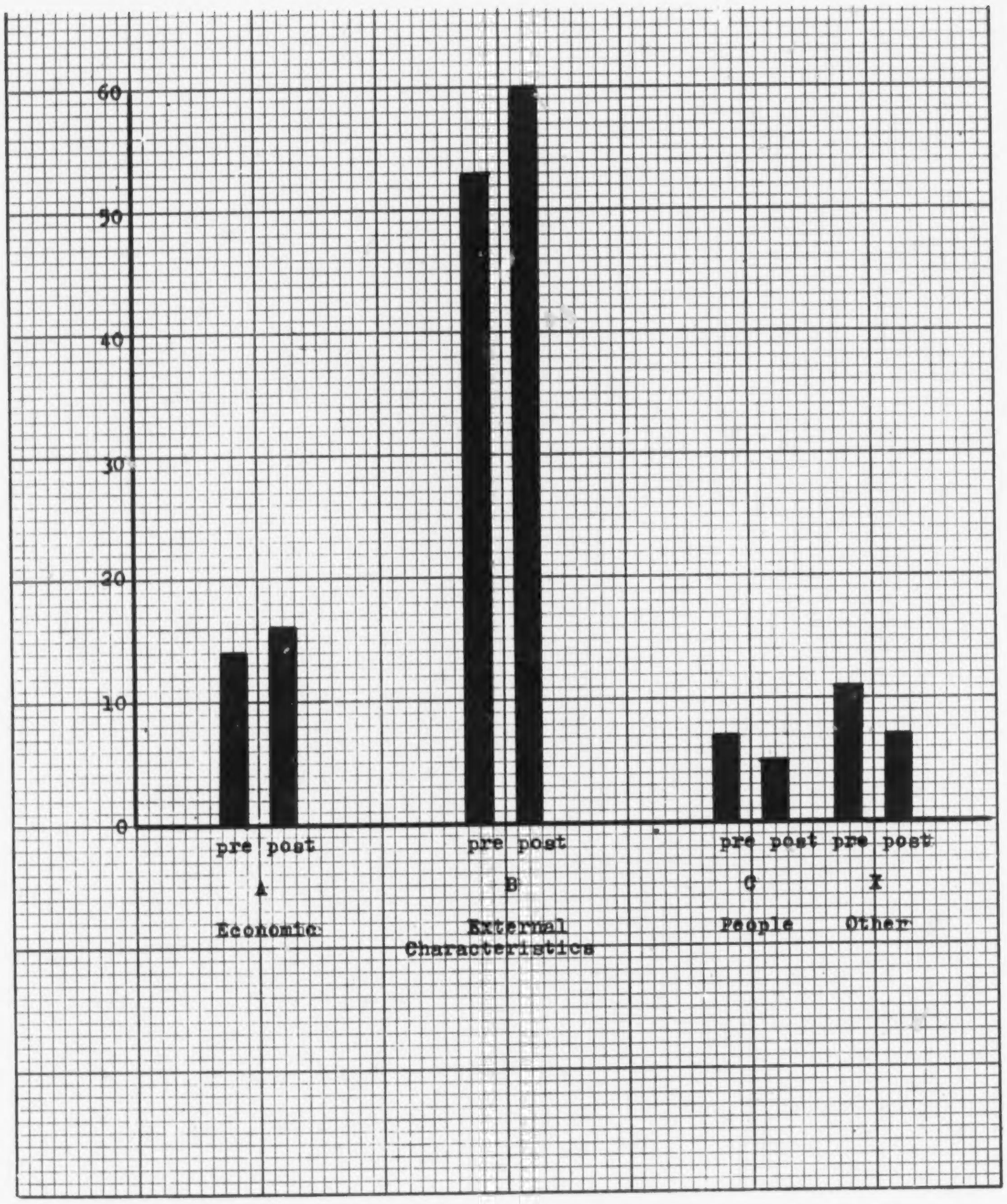

Figure 9. Change in responses to Item 7 (What is a slum?) overall

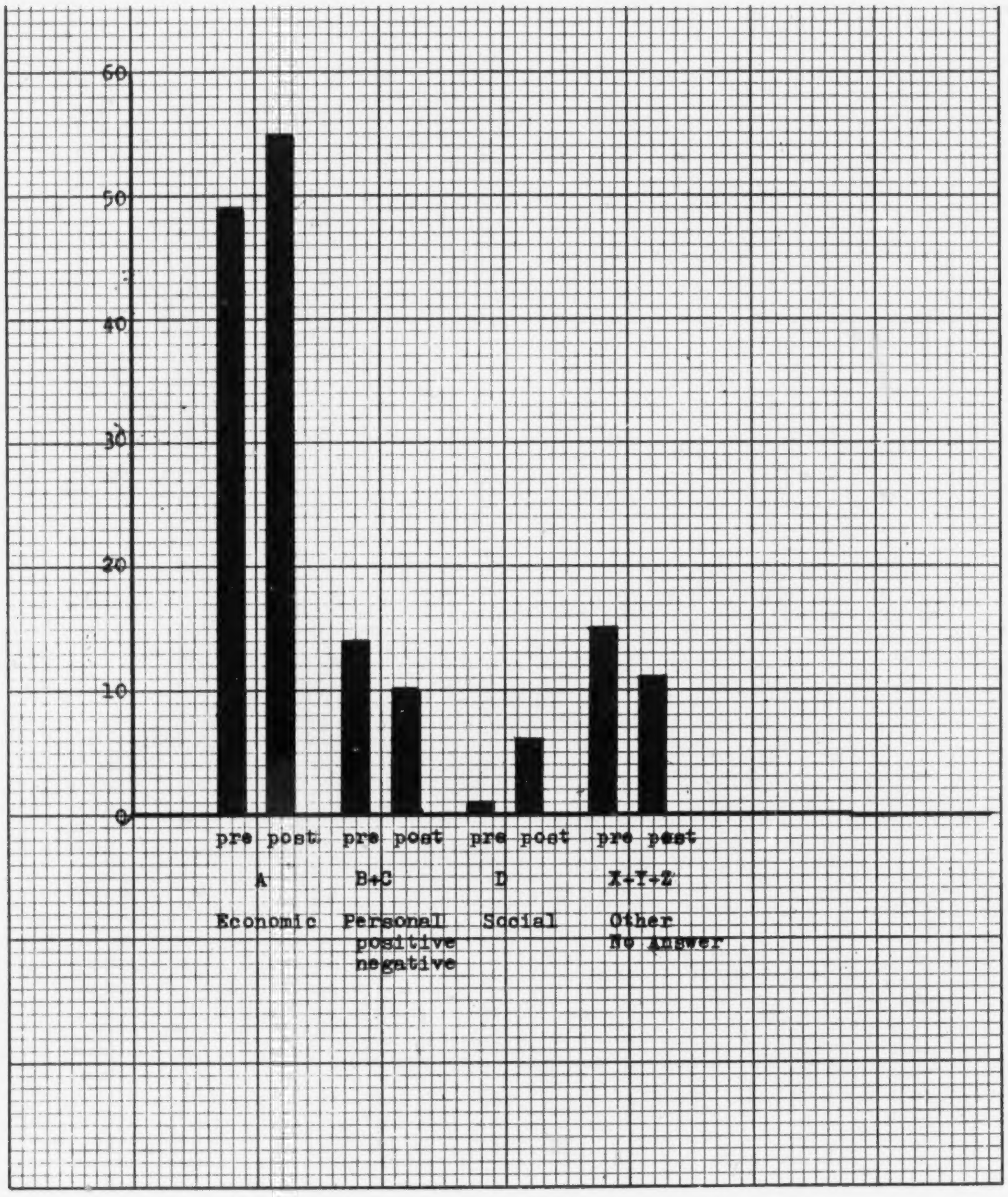

Figure 10. Change in responses to Item 8 (Why do people live in slums) overall

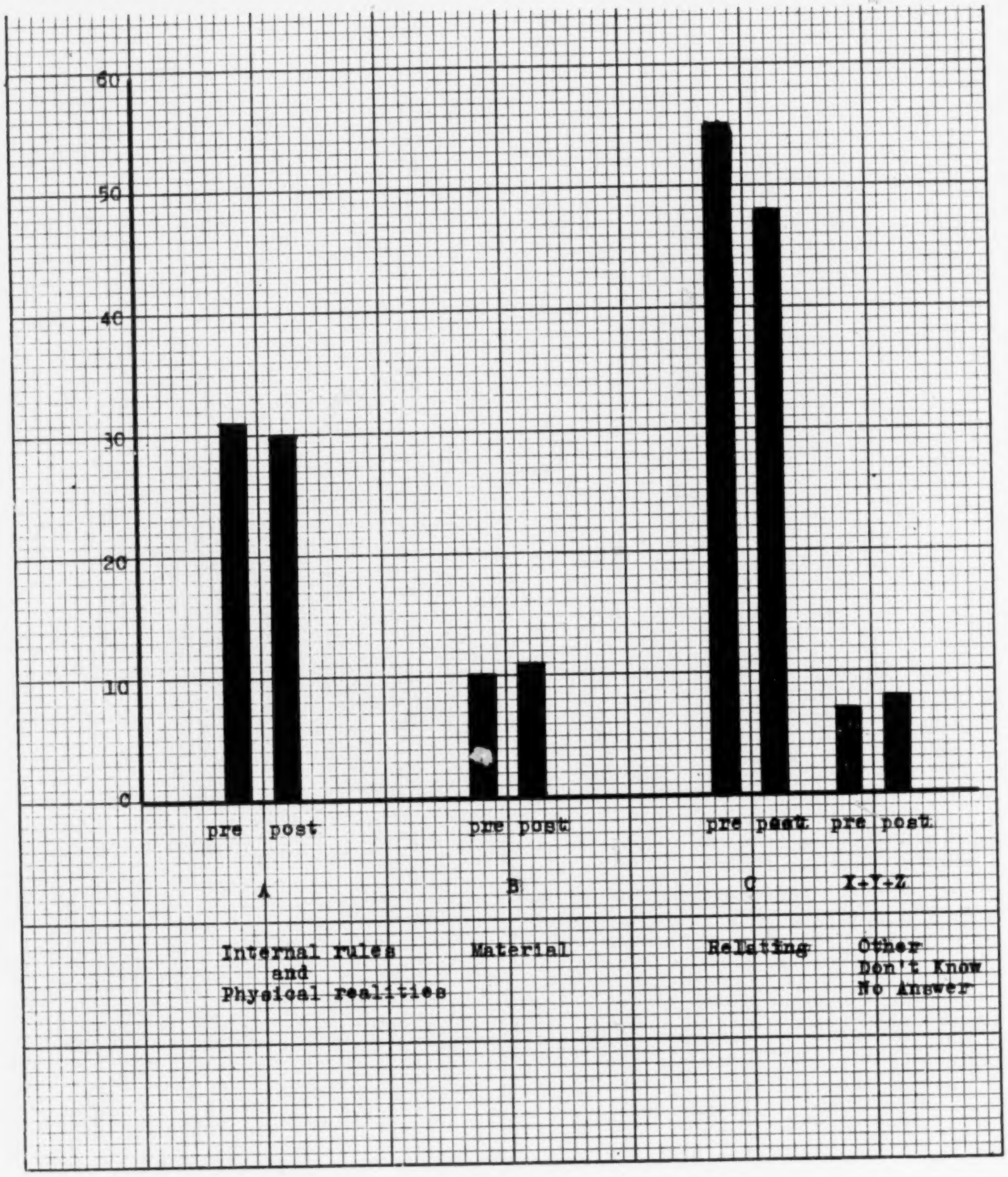

Figure 11. Change in responses to Item 13 (What makes a good family?) overall

of children of this age to detect differences and to express them directly. The questions to be included are:

1. Do you know any people who are different from you?
2. How are they different?
3. How are they like you?
4. If you were talking to me and you told me that some one was like you, what would you mean when you said some one like me?
5. What do you mean when you say some one is different from me?

A second part of the interview, the "Crayon Color Interview," was a rough attempt to get information on children's color preferences as one variable which could be related to other variables. Since the tryout group was so small, it is difficult to draw any conclusions about color preference and its relationship to the main object of the evaluation procedures -- the determination of the degree and direction of stereotypic thinking.

(b) Story Completion. This interview was very well received by both the teachers and the children who were interviewed. Evidently, the interview is fun, and the teachers took it so enthusiastically that they planned to develop stories of their own. Of course, this is precisely what is desired in the training of teachers to become better evaluators of their own teaching.

The preliminary findings are reported in Tables IX - XV which follow the questions incorporated in the story. The data based on interviews with 17 children give the general idea of the results. These children are seeing differences between groups and with some minor exceptions, when asked to rate or rank groups different from their own in terms of social distance or desirable or attractive characteristics, favored white children over Negro children.

Although these data can be considered in no way conclusive, there are indications that these young children are beginning to exhibit signs and symptoms of at least the beginning of prejudice.

One major difficulty with the interview must be noted. Suitable material for pictures is difficult to locate. We assumed that colored pictures of the illustration variety would be more compelling than photographs, but this is still an untested assumption. It also is difficult to locate pictures of children and adults who clearly represent the characteristic physical appearance of selected groups. Moreover, position of figures -- prominent as compared to less prominent location -- may also play a determining part in eliciting particular responses.

(c) Color Preference. Based on an interview population of 19 students, these results are presented in Table XVI. If the rank choices are summed above and below the median rank (ranks 1-4 and ranks 5-8), a two-way distribution of favored versus less favored colors is produced, as reported in Table XVII.

A cursory inspection of these data reveals that black is not a highly favored color, while blue, red, and yellow seem to carry strong appeal. Brown, somewhat surprisingly in view of Coles's finding, ranks close to these favored colors. But color in itself may be an unreliable indicator of an individual child's perceptions of people and things in his environment. Studies of the art work of Balinese children show that at very early ages, about six years, a child's artistic productions are extremely culture bound. One wonders about the extent to which the seeming lack of appeal of the basic color, black, might not be a function of the use of black lead pencils to draw outlines of figures and objects which then lend themselves to different colorations perhaps because of the child's need to express variety in his drawings.

While this is highly speculative, it may not be more so than the current speculations on the use of black as reflecting a child's color bias toward people.

It is clear that more work should be done in this area with appropriate controls for the subject matter of drawings and the level of children's technical skill in executing drawings, as well as the range of materials.

2. Children's Drawings. There was not enough time during the summer to obtain from the students using the lower grade unit a sufficient number of drawings in the three major reference groups -- the child's own group, a friend, and the Negro -- to make anything but a broad trend analysis of the drawings according to the criteria which were developed. As a reminder, these criteria are:

1. Degree of attention and care, as evidenced in color and line
2. Relationships of elements in the picture, e.g., figures in relation to buildings, other figures, etc.
3. Relative size of figures
4. Relative amount of detail
5. Subject matter

The evaluators were able to obtain complete drawing sets from 5 children. From these drawings there were no observable regularities which could lead to any general statements of drawings as being reflective of perceptions or attitudes toward different groups. However, there were two rather interesting findings which appeared in a number of drawings done by several of the children. It seems that less familiar figures, e.g., the Negro child, are done with much more detail than more familiar figures, such as the friend. On the other hand, the drawing of the child's own home was much more heavily detailed than the home of the Negro child or the friend.

One interpretation which seems reasonable is that the image a child has in his mind of familiar figures is so replete with detail that when he comes to draw a representation of this image, he does so with little detail because he requires minimal perceptual cues to match what he externalizes in the drawings with the image he has in his head. But when he draws something familiar, but something of his very own, his house, it could be that the great amount of detail is simply his way of showing what belongs to him -- an expression of proprietorship.

The use of children's drawings as an evaluative measure remains in a primitive stage of development. There is good reason to believe, however, that a teacher who is in continuous contact with a child and, therefore, who has an opportunity to discuss with him what the drawings mean, could apply the suggested criteria to gain insight into children's perceptions of themselves, their relationships with other people, and their environment. The technique appears definitely promising from the standpoint of feasibility and interpretability, but a great deal of work remains to be done in order to develop the precision which is required of an evaluative device designed to appraise initial states and changes from one point to another as a result of instructional intervention.

## Interview II - Story Completion

## Table IX

## Question 2 - Social Distance: Order of Group Preference

Summary of Individual Choice

| Name | White, brown-haired boy | White, blonde girl | Negro girl | White, blonde girl | White, blond boy | Chinese boy | Negro girl | Teacher |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Albert | 1 | 4 | 3 | 2 | | | | |
| Catherine | 4 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 8 | 6 | 7 | 1 |
| Danny | 1 | 6 | 5 | 7 | 3 | 2 | 4 | |
| Danny | 1 | 8 | 3 | 2 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 4 |
| David | 1 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 7 | 6 | |
| Filomena | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 7 | 5 | |
| Fred | 3 | 2 | 6 | 1 | 5 | 4 | 7 | |
| Jose | 1 | 4 | 7 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 6 | |
| Jose | 3 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 1 | 2 | 4 | |

## Table IX Continued

| Name | a | b | c | d | e | f | g | h |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ligra | 5 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 6 | 7 | 3 | |
| Maria | 7 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 6 | 4 | |
| Maria | 3 | 1 | 2 | | 4 | 5 | 6 | |
| Martha | 3 | 7 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 6 | 4 | |
| Richard | 1 | 5 | 6 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 7 | |
| Roger | 7 | 5 | 6 | 4 | 1 | 3 | 2 | |
| Sheila | 7 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 6 | 4 | 5 | |
| Wayne | 1 | 5 | | 4 | 2 | 3 | 6 | |

## Table X

Question 2 - Social Distance: Order of Group Preference

Summary of Frequency of Choice

N = 17

| Choice | White, brown-haired boy | White, blonde girl | Negro girl | White, blonde girl | White, blond boy | Chinese boy | Negro girl | Teacher |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 7 | 2 |  | 5 | 2 | 1 |  | 1 |
| 2 |  | 3 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 1 |  |
| 3 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 1 |  |
| 4 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 1 |
| 5 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 |  |
| 6 |  | 1 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 5 |  |
| 7 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 |  |
| 8 |  |  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |

## Interview II - Picture III

### Table XI
### Question 3 - Who Thinks Up the Best Game?

Summary of Frequency of Choice

| | Frequency<br>N = 17 |
|---|---|
| Negro girl | 0 |
| White, dark-blonde girl | 1 |
| White, bright-blonde girl | 6 |
| Negro boy | 0 |
| White, brown-haired boy | 2 |
| Chinese girl | 0 |
| Negro girl | 0 |
| White, blond boy | 8 |

Interview II - Picture III

Table XII

Question 4 - Who Wins the Game?

Summary of Frequency of Choice

| | Frequency<br>N = 17 |
|---|---|
| Negro girl | 0 |
| White, dark-blonde girl | 0 |
| White, bright-blonde girl | 0 |
| Negro boy | 3 |
| White, brown-haired boy | 2 |
| Chinese girl | 2 |
| Negro girl | 1 |
| White, blond boy | 8 |

Interview II - Picture III

Table XIII

Question 5 - Who is the Runner-Up in the Game?

Summary of Frequency of Choice

| | Frequency N = 17 |
|---|---|
| Negro girl | 0 |
| White, dark-blonde girl | 0 |
| White, bright-blonde girl | 5 |
| Negro boy | 2 |
| White, brown-haired boy | 3 |
| Chinese girl | 2 |
| Negro girl | 5 |
| White, blond boy | 1 |

Interview II - Picture IV

Table XIV

Question 6 - Future Occupations

Summary of Frequency of Choice

Occupational Scale

| | High Professional | Business Proprietors | Skilled workers | Semi-skilled | Unskilled | Other |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Chinese boy | 3 | | 1 | 10 | | 2 |
| White, blonde girl | 4 | | 5 | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| White, blonde girl | 5 | | 4 | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| Negro boy | 4 | | 1 | 7 | 2 | 3 |
| White, brown-haired boy | 4 | | | 6 | 3 | 4 |
| White, brown-haired girl | 7 | | 4 | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Negro girl | 2 | | 8 | 4 | | 3 |

## Interview II - Picture IV

## Table XV

## Question 7 - Who Is the Troublemaker?

Summary of Frequency of Choice

| | Frequency<br>N = 17 |
|---|---|
| Chinese boy | 4 |
| White, blonde girl | 3 |
| White, blonde girl | 0 |
| Negro Boy | 0 |
| White, brown-haired boy | 5 |
| White, brown-haired girl | 2 |
| Negro girl | 3 |

Interview III - Color Preference

Table XVI

Number of Rank Choices

N = 19

Rank Choice

| Color | | | | | Median choice | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| Black | | 2 | | | 5 | 3 | 4 | 2 |
| Blue | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4 | | 3 | 1 | |
| Brown | 1 | | 4 | 5 | | 3 | 3 | |
| Green | 5 | | 2 | | 6 | 2 | 2 | |
| Orange | 2 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 4 | |
| Red | 5 | 7 | 3 | 1 | 2 | | | 1 |
| Yellow | 1 | 5 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 | |
| Purple | 1 | | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

## Table XVII

## Number of Rank Choices

| Color | Above Median | Below Median |
|---|---|---|
| Black | 2 | 14 |
| Blue | 13 | 4 |
| Brown | 10 | 6 |
| Green | 7 | 10 |
| Orange | 8 | 9 |
| Red | 16 | 3 |
| Yellow | 10 | 4 |
| Purple | 2 | 4 |

## III-C

## Dissemination of the Intergroup Relations Curriculum

It may be of value to give a brief accounting of the manner in which the Lincoln Filene Center has disseminated information about many dimensions of the Curriculum. Through distribution of the study, Race and Culture in American Life, inservice programs, addresses and papers, preservice programs, publications and press releases, visits by educators to the Center, and miscellaneous programs, thousands have become aware of the Center's research and development in intergroup relations education.

### 1. Distribution of Race and Culture in American Life

More than 2,000 copies of Race and Culture in American Life (a reprint of the report to the Office of Education of October, 1967) have been distributed to educators and interested persons upon request. Many were given without cost. It became necessary, however, to charge $3.50 per copy for this study in order to recover part of the investment in printing costs. We have ample evidence that many teachers used this study for initiating curriculum programs in intergroup relations in elementary schools.

### 2. Inservice Programs

As noted in Part C of this section, six intensive inservice programs were sponsored by the Center, with the Curriculum serving as the basis for these institutes and seminars. Approximately 350 teachers and administrators participated in the programs.

### 3. Addresses and Papers

Members of the Center's staff have given many addresses and papers dealing with various dimensions of the Curriculum. The following listing of places where these addresses were delivered will give the reader some idea of audiences reached by the Center's staff in 1968:

Cambridge (Massachusetts) Friends School, January 16; Section Meeting, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Atlantic City (New Jersey), March 8; Program sponsored by the Maryland Department of Education, Hagerstown (Maryland), March 19; Lesley-Ellis College, Cambridge (Massachusetts), March 22; Section Meeting, National School Boards Association, Detroit (Michigan), April 2; Methuen (Massachusetts) Teachers Institute, April 17; Program sponsored by the New Mexico Department of Education, Albequerque (New Mexico), April 20; Program sponsored by the National Education Association and a number of associations in the southern states at Nashville (Tennessee), April 24; Foxboro (Massachusetts) Teachers Program, May 16; Demonstration session sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education, Bowen School, Washington, D.C., May 21; Buckingham School, Cambridge (Massachusetts), May 22; Huntingdon (Pennsylvania) Teachers Institute, June 2 - 4; Program of New England superintendents sponsored by the New England School Development Council, July 9; N.D.E.A. Institute, Eastern Michigan University, September 13; Tri-University Project in Elementary Education, University of Washington, October 8; Cape Cod Teachers Association, October 11; Hingham (Massachusetts), Teachers Institute, October 15; Walpole (Massachusetts) Teachers Program, October 21; Western Michigan University Institute, October 25; Mid-States Social Studies Association, University of Delaware, October 25; Bedford (Massachusetts) Teachers Program, November 12; and Section Meeting, National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C., November 21.

### 4. The Curriculum and Preservice Programs

The Curriculum and its research and development findings were examined in detail in Dr. Gibson's spring, 1968, graduate course at Tufts ("Research and Innovation in the Social Studies," Education 221). It was also presented in Dr. Lonnie Carton's Tufts course ("Principles of Elementary Education," Education 131). Other preservice presentations of the Curriculum were delivered in classes at Boston State University, at the University of Arizona, at the University of Connecticut by Professor Vincent R. Rogers, and at the University of New Hampshire by Professor John G. Chaltas.

### 5. Publications and Press Releases

Only a few of the many announcements about the Curriculum to appear in various educational journals are as follows: Elementary Curriculum Letter, Croft Educational Services, October, 1968; "How to Integrate Your District's Curriculum," in School Management, August, 1968; and the Social Science Educational Consortium Newsletter, June, 1968. Dr. Gibson's article, "Learning Materials and Minorities: What Medium and What Message?" in the March, 1968, issue of Illinois Education, received a first-place gold medallion in the National Mass Media Brotherhood Awards program of the National Conference of

Mass Media Brotherhood Awards program of the National Conference of Christians and Jews. This article reported some of the basic propositions, critiques, and recommendations on intergroup education which are set forth in Volume I of this study.

The Curriculum has been described frequently in the press. Some recent articles are as follows: "Tufts Offers School Curriculum to Counter Racial Prejudice," Boston Globe, December 29, 1968, Section A, p. 15; "Curriculum Targets Roots of Racism," The Christian Science Monitor, December 21, 1968, p.2; "U.S. Racial Abrasions Best Treated in Class," Boston Sunday Advertiser, December 22, 1968; and "Tufts Study Says Teachers Must Face Racial Issues," The Patriot Ledger, (Quincy, Massachusetts) December 20, 1968. An editorial about the Center's inservice program in Rhode Island appeared in the Providence Journal. on June 16, 1968. We would like to include that editorial in this study:

> The elimination of race prejudice in both teachers and students constitutes one of the most -- if not the most -- important challenges to modern American education. If it is regarded by some school systems as a marginal concern to be confronted only if and when pressure is applied by some higher authority or by parents in the community, it is because the profound consequences of racism have not yet been made clear to them.
>
> In Rhode Island, a highly commendable effort has been made at the state level to face the issue squarely. The State Department of Education has laid a solid foundation for a continuing, long-range program to help teachers rid themselves of lifelong racial attitudes that are alien to a pluralistic democratic society. In addition, the 100 elementary school teachers and administrators from around the state who recently completed a 12-week workshop at the Edmund W. Flynn School were provided special materials for use in their classrooms for more effective teaching about racial and cultural diversity in American life.
>
> Two-hour sessions were conducted weekly by personnel from the Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs at Tufts University. Participants who enrolled voluntarily and attended on their own time were paid transportation costs only. While

the results of an effort like this one involve numerous intangibles, there is no question about the need for new insights by teachers into the subtleties and sensitivities of race relations. As Dr. John S. Gibson, director of the program, remarked, "A start has to be made somewhere to change attitudes and maybe we can provoke the teachers to start questioning their own assumptions and to try to sort out their own hangups."

That start has been made in Rhode Island. It must be continued so that eventually the program will reach into every school system in the state. The solutions of two main problems, however, are critical to the future of this effort. Training offered on a voluntary basis has the built-in handicap of attracting those least in need of it -- those who recognize the seriousness of the problem and are trying hardest to rid themselves of bias and to adapt their teaching methods to the needs of a racially integrated society. The question facing the department of education is whether all elementary teachers in the state should be required to take this instruction and either be paid for the extra time spent or be allowed released time during the school day.

The other problem is how to assure that teachers will put their new insights and special materials to work with their youngsters. In Dr. Gibson's view, the curriculum developed by the Lincoln Filene Center for the program is not as important as persuading the teachers to use it. If they don't, much of the value will be lost.

6. Visits of Educators to the Lincoln Filene Center

More than 100 educators with all kinds of institutional affiliations have visited the Center this year to discuss the Curriculum with members of the staff. They represented many different schools and universities, and they reviewed in some detail the research and resources associated with the Curriculum. Among our many visitors was Mr. Jeffrey G. Dorrance of the Maumee Valley Country Day School, Maumee, Ohio, who had used the Curriculum prior to contacting the Center and even took the initiative of writing a critique of the Declaration of Independence unit and of submitting suggestions for revising the Indian unit. A team from Mansfield, Ohio, headed by Curriculum Director Ralph Smith, visited us and returned to implement the Curriculum in some schools in Mansfield. Many other educators visiting the Center could be cited.

7. Miscellaneous

The Coordinating Council of the Northeastern States Citizenship Project, which meets with Center staff three or four times a year, has been most helpful in providing information about the Curriculum to school systems in the Northeast, as have many social studies specialists in state offices of education. The Curriculum has been featured on a number of television programs, and a kinescope of Dr. Gibson presenting some of the Curriculum's salient features was made from a September, 1967, television program on the Curriculum produced by Channel 35 in Chicago. This kinescope is available from the Lincoln Filene Center to those who would like to examine the Curriculum, and it has received fairly wide distribution.

## III - D

## Projections for the Intergroup Relations Curriculum

The Lincoln Filene Center's intentions for carrying on its work in intergroup relations education at the elementary school level, with the Intergroup Relations Curriculum serving as the foundation for this activity, embrace various aspects.

In the first place, this study, The Intergroup Relations Curriculum: A Program for Elementary School Education (Medford, Massachusetts: Lincoln Filene Center, Tufts University, 1969), as a copyrighted Center publication, will, we trust, receive wide distribution in the United States.

Secondly, this study will serve as the central foundation for monthly two-day seminars for teachers which will be sponsored by the Center and will take place at the Center's building on the Tufts campus in the winter and spring of 1969. Miss Damaris Ames, Director of the Division of Elementary Studies at the Center, will be primarily responsible for these seminars. Based on the Center's evaluation of its previous inservice programs for teachers, these seminars will provide the 25-35 elementary school educators in attendance with opportunities for discussing the problems of prejudice, with a full briefing on the Curriculum and how to use it in the classroom and with demonstrations of instructional resources in intergroup relations education. Miss Joyce Southard, Assistant Director of the Division of Elementary Studies, will help Miss Ames and will have special responsibility for presentation of the instructional resources.

The Center will be closely associated with the Medford (Massachusetts) school system in a broad program for using the Curriculum in Medford's 17 elementary schools. It also will plan a program for the Curriculum in the Model Cities Project in Manchester, New Hampshire; and will do the same in many schools in New Jersey in conjunction with the New Jersey State Department of Education.

The Center will continue to have clinical relationships with the many teachers and systems presently using the Curriculum, and undoubtedly will establish new relationships with different school systems in 1969. Of particular importance will be the feedback to the Center from wide teaching of the Curriculum during 1969 and the utilization of this feedback for constant modification and improvement of the Curriculum. In other words, the Curriculum, as presented in Volume II of this study, will undergo constant study, evaluation, and change so that it may better serve teachers and students in the future. Associated with this use and feedback will be new attempts to evaluate student progress toward the objectives of the Curriculum. Evaluation also will be made of the participants in the inservice programs sponsored by the Center.

We anticipate continued concern for developing innovative instructional resources for use with the Curriculum. For instance, in the spring of 1969, the Text-Film Division of the McGraw-Hill Book Company will release a series of films, film strips, and transparencies on the governing process for use at the intermediate level. These visuals will be ideal for presenting a number of concepts included in the Curriculum. We shall produce more learning activities and units which will employ many kinds of audio-visuals, and it is expected that other publishing houses and producers of audio-visuals will put on the market instructional materials which will supplement the Curriculum in many ways.

To put the matter concisely, we feel strongly that the work devoted to the Curriculum thus far must continue and that this program will increasingly advance democratic intergroup relations in the United States through the processes of education in the elementary school.